MEMOIRS OF JEREMY COLLIER, M. A.

With a fine Head of that Divine, engraven by Hopwood, *from an Original.*

JEREMY COLLIER, ſon of Jeremy Collier, was born at Stow Qui, or Quire, in Cambridgeſhire, Sept. 23, 1650. His father was a divine, and conſiderable linguiſt, and ſome time maſter of the free-ſchool, at Ipſwich, in the county of Suffolk. His grandfather likewiſe was a clergyman, ſettled at Bradford, in Yorkſhire, where he lived in eſteem for his function. He was born at Yeadon, near Bradford, and deſcended from a gentleman's family of that name, ſeated at Thruſk, in the ſame county, in the reign of Henry VIII. Our author's mother was Eliſabeth Smith, of Qui, in Cambridgeſhire, where her family were poſſeſſed of a conſiderable intereſt, and related to the Sternes of that town, being by her mother deſcended from the Keys, or Cays, of Yorkſhire and Lincolnſhire.

He was educated under his father at Ipſwich, whence he was ſent to Cambridge, and admitted a poor ſcholar of Caius college, under the tuition of Mr. John Ellys. His admiſſion bears date April 10, 1669, in the eighteenth year of his age. He took the degree of Bachelor of Arts in the year 1672-3, and that of Maſter of Arts in 1676, being ordained Deacon on the 24th of September, the ſame year, by Dr. Peter Gunning, biſhop of Ely, and prieſt, February 24, 1677, by Dr. Henry Compton, biſhop of London. Having entered into prieſt's orders, he officiated for ſome time at the counteſs dowager of Dorſet's, at Knowle, in Kent, whence he removed to a ſmall rectory at Ampton, near St. Edmondſbury, in Suffolk, to which he was preſented by James Calthorpe, eſq. and inſtituted by Dr. Anthony Sparrow, biſhop of Norwich, Sept 25, 1679. After he had held this benefice ſix years, he reſigned it, and came to reſide in London in 1685, and was, ſome little time after, made lecturer at Gray's-inn. But the revolution taking place, the public exerciſe of his function became incompatible with his ſtrong attachment to the exiled family. He did not, however, at that critical juncture, ſit down contentedly, and ſay nothing; but finding, in that confuſion which aroſe upon king James' going to France, that the convention was, in a great meaſure, influenced by the papers written by a clergyman, who came over with the prince of Orange, he thought the ſame liberty might be taken by a clergyman who conceived differently from him, and accordingly broke the ice, and publiſhed the firſt pamphlet that appeared in defence of the cauſe which he eſpouſed. This was entitled 'The Deſertion (of king James) diſcuſſed, in a Letter to a Country Gentleman, 1688, 4to.' This produced anſwers, and it gave ſo much offence, that after the government was ſettled, he was impriſoned in Newgate for ſome months, but was at length diſcharged without being brought to a trial.

Mr. Collier, however, remained firm to the principles he had embraced, and continued not only to abſtain from taking the oaths, which the new legiſlature had impoſed, but laboured all that in him lay to prevent others, more eſpecially ſuch as were members of the church of England, from owning, or ſo much as complying with them. It was to this end that he wrote ſeveral warm and bitter pieces, which in thoſe days had their effect, and conſequently procured their author, in the opinion at leaſt of thoſe who were of his own party, the character both of a ſolid and ſhining writer. The names of theſe controverſial writings may now be omitted as very little intereſting, and not the works which procured our author his fixed reputation.

This conduct of his, however, occaſioned an eye to be kept over his

proceedings, nor can it be ſuppoſed that any government would forbear the opportunity that occurred of giving ſome check, to ſo active, ſo induſtrious, and ſo dangerous a man. It was not long before ſuch an occaſion offered itſelf. Information was given to the earl of Nottingham, at that time ſecretary of ſtate, that Mr. Collier, with one Mr. Newton, another nonjuring clergyman, was gone down to Romney-marſh; which was enough to fix a ſuſpicion, that they were either endeavouring to ſend intelligence to, or were labouring to receive it from, the other ſide of the water. Upon this, about the latter end of the year 1692, meſſengers were ſent down into Kent to apprehend them; which they accordingly did, and brought them to London, where, after a ſhort examination before the earl of Nottingham, who charged them with being in a deſign againſt the government, they were committed to the Gate-houſe. But, as no evidence of their being in any ſuch deſign could be found, they were admitted to bail. So ſtrict, however, were Mr. Collier's principles, that he had not long been at liberty, before he began to queſtion the conſiſtency of his own conduct in giving bail; upon which he went before the lord chief juſtice Holt, ſurrendered in their diſcharge, and was committed to the King's-bench priſon; but upon the application of ſome of his friends to that moſt upright and impartial judge, he was diſcharged in a week or ten days. Yet even this did not content him, as appears by ſeveral pieces of his written upon this ſubject. The title of one of them was, 'The Caſe of giving Bail to a pretended Authority examined, &c.' It appears that he had occaſionally read law, and was induced to make a ſcruple of remaining upon bail, becauſe he apprehended that the very recognizance, by which bail was taken, carried in it an acknowledgement of the juriſdiction of the court, in which the bail was taken, and by conſequence of the power whence the authority of that court was derived. There was ſomething like conſiſtency in all this, yet in our days we ſmile at an effort ſo impotent to ſet aſide a government, erected upon ſuch principles as thoſe which occaſioned the revolution.

For ſome years after, there happened nothing that ſo far engaged this gentleman's attention, as to induce him to write againſt the tranſactions of the ſtate, which were, generally ſpeaking, the ſubjects that employed his pen. But upon the breaking out of that which was called the Aſſaſſination Plot, and the conviction of ſir John Friend and ſir William Perkins, an incident happened which made a very great noiſe, and deeply affected Mr. Collier his whole life after. The fact was this: Mr. Collier, with Mr. Cook and Mr. Snatt, both clergymen of his own opinion, attended thoſe unhappy perſons at the place of execution, where Mr. Collier ſolemnly abſolved the former, as Mr. Cook did the latter, and all three joined in the impoſition of hands upon them both. This, as might be very well expected, made a very great noiſe, and was looked upon as a very high inſult on the civil and eccleſiaſtical government; for which reaſon they fell under a ſevere proſecution on one ſide, in conſequence of which Mr. Cook and Mr. Snatt were ſent to Newgate, but Mr. Collier having ſtill his old ſcruple about putting in bail, abſconded, and was outlawed, under which incapacity he remained as long as he lived. On the other hand, both the archbiſhops, and ten of their ſuffragans, viz. the biſhops of London, Durham, Winchеſter, Coventry and Litchfield, Rocheſter, Hereford, Norwich, Peterborough, Glouceſter, Chicheſter and St. Aſaph, publiſhed a very ſtrong declaration of their ſenſe of this ſcandalous and irregular proceeding. To this our author wrote an anſwer with his uſual vigour, and after that ſeveral other pieces, in ſupport of his own and his brethren's conduct in this affair, none of which, we confeſs, appear to us to be ſatisfactory.

After this ſtorm was a little over, Mr. Collier employed himſelf in reviewing and retouching ſeveral miſcellaneous pieces of his, to which he added ſome others, and publiſhed them in a volume; and theſe were ſo well received, that about ſeven years afterward he publiſhed another, and ſeveral years after that a third. Theſe pieces of his were written upon religious, moral, and entertaining ſubjects, with ſuch a mixture of learning and wit, and in a ſtile ſo eaſy and flowing, that notwithſtanding the prejudice of party, which could not but be ſtrong againſt him, they were generally well received, and have run through many editions ſince. One muſt indeed allow, that very few books bade fairer for univerſal approbation, in an age, which if not ſtrictly virtuous, was at leaſt highly decent; and when every body affected a concern for promoting whatever had a tendency to make men better, wiſer, or more polite, all which ends were proſecuted with great effect in Collier's eſſays. Dr. Kippis, in the new edition of the Biographia, has objected to the ſtyle of the eſſays, and to the character given of them by his learned predeceſſor, but on a fair peruſal of them, we cannot ſee much reaſon for his objections. Style is truly valuable and important, but in a frivolous age like the preſent, we are ſorry to ſee any inclination, among ſerious men, to give it the preference over ſubject.

The very next year after the publication of the firſt volume of theſe miſcellaneous Diſcourſes, Mr. Collier made his celebrated and ſucceſsful attempt to reform the ſtage. Dr. Johnſon's account of this affair has been ſo often quoted, and is in every body's hands, that we ſhall prefer in this place, the ſhort account given by the author of the Supplement to Mr. Dodſley's preface to his ſelect collection of old plays, as it contains two or three curious facts, not hitherto noticed.

'While,' ſays this author, 'the rival theatres were contending againſt each other with inveterate malice, an enemy to the very toleration of dramatic entertainments appeared, who, with conſiderable ability, and with all the rigid puritanical maxims of a ſevere ſect, attacked the ſtage on account of its profaneneſs and immorality. This was the celebrated Jeremy Collier, who in 1698, publiſhed a book, containing a ſevere invective againſt the acting of plays, the profligacy of the performers, and the licentiouſneſs of the poets; and having ſome truth and juſtice on his ſide, the advocates for the theatre found themſelves hard preſſed to anſwer the charges brought againſt their favourite diverſion. It cannot be denied but that many authors, and ſome in great favour with the public, had written in a manner which warranted the cenſure of every perſon who profeſſed the leaſt regard to propriety or decency. Mr. Collier was oppoſed by Congreve, Vanburgh, Dryden, Dennis, and others with wit and humour, but without confuting the objections which had been ſtarted either againſt themſelves individually, or againſt the ſtage in general. The public opinion ran ſo much againſt the defenders of the theatre, and in favour of their enemy, that king William conſidered Mr. Collier's book, as a work which entitled the author of it to ſome lenity in a proſecution, then carrying on in conſequence of errors in his political conduct. This controverſy produced as much as could be wiſhed for from it. Mr. Cibber obſerves, the calling our dramatic writers to this ſtrict account had a very wholeſome effect upon thoſe who wrote after this time. They were now a great deal more upon their guard; indecencies were no longer wit; and by degrees the fair ſex came again to fill the boxes on the firſt day of a new comedy, without fear or cenſure. To forward the ſtage's reformation, proſecutions were commenced againſt ſome of the performers, for repeating profane and indecent words. Several were found guilty, and Betterton and Mrs. Brace-

girdle were actually fined. Theſe ſeverities were not entirely thrown away. From this period may be dated the introduction of that more refined taſte, which has done ſo much credit to the Britiſh theatre.

Mr. Collier's principal work on this ſubject is entitled, 'A ſhort View of the Immorality and Profaneneſs of the Engliſh Stage, together with the Senſe of Antiquity upon this Argument, Oct. 1698.' It is a very methodical and learned work, and will amply repay the trouble of a peruſal. It occurs frequently in the catalogues of books, and is charged but a trifling price.

The abilities and induſtry of our author were next exerciſed in a much larger work, than any he had hitherto undertaken, which was that of making Moreri's Dictionary uſeful to the Engliſh nation; in which he laboured for many years with great ſucceſs, taking all the precautions poſſible to be well informed as to the new articles he publiſhed; and ſo well were his endeavours in this kind received by the public, notwithſtanding ſome exceptions that were taken to them, that few books have met with a better fate, or longer maintained their credit. It is intitled, 'The great Hiſtorical, Geographical, Genealogical, and Poetical Dictionary;' in four volumes, folio. As no work has ſince been publiſhed on the ſame plan and extent, the character it held then, and which Dr. Campbell has given it, preſerves much of its truth and juſtice. The whole is certainly a great treaſure of hiſtorical, geographical, and poetical learning; and is not only very uſeful and entertaining to young ſcholars, who may by the help of it acquire much knowledge, and enter thoroughly into the meaning of the books they read in any of theſe kinds of learning; but even to perſons of the greateſt abilities, and moſt comprehenſive ſcience, who have but ſmall libraries, and live at a diſtance from London, and the two univerſities. Yet this work is certainly capable of great improvements, and theſe might be made without enlarging the bulk, for it might be reduced under one alphabet: whereas at preſent there are four or five; and as by this means a multitude of repetitions, alterations, and corrections, might be thrown out, ſo this would make room for new articles, which might be eaſily found in the latter edition of Moreri's Dictionary. The learned reader will eaſily diſcern, that this is no reflection either upon Mr. Collier's memory, or his performance, ſince he did all that was poſſible to be done at the time he wrote; and the inconveniencies before mentioned were unavoidable from his manner of publication, as that too, with reſpect to him, was a matter not of choice but neceſſity.

After the acceſſion of queen Anne to the throne, great endeavours were uſed to recover Mr. Collier to the church, by inducing him to comply with the terms preſcribed by the ſtate. All efforts of this kind, though ſupported not only with general promiſes of preferment, but with more particular aſſurances, were ineffectual; and Mr. Collier remained among the non-juring clergy, being incapable of diſſembling an alteration of ſentiments for the ſake of temporal views.

About the ſame time that he publiſhed the firſt volume of his Dictionary, he likewiſe obliged the world with a very elegant tranſlation from the Greek, of that famous book of the emperor Marcus Antoninus, which has done more credit to his memory, than even his excellent adminiſtration of public affairs, during a reign which does honour to the Roman Hiſtory. This tranſlation was univerſally well received on its firſt appearance, and is ſtill read with the applauſe that ſo well written, and ſo uſeful a treatiſe of moral philoſophy deſerves. It is one of the beſt collections we have in the Engliſh tongue of the morals of the ancients, and, in conjunction with the works of Plutarch, Epictetus, and Seneca, will make an admirable library of that kind. The pieces of which it is compoſed are very well

choſen, and illuſtrate each other perfectly, ſo as to render all the paſſages in them clear and intelligible; and yet it is of a very moderate ſize, and has nothing in it redundant, or foreign to the purpoſe.

The ſituation of thoſe times, and the many worthy and generous patrons of whatever regarded the honour of this kingdom, encouraged Mr. Collier to hope, that an Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of Great Britain, which, in the extent he intended it, had never been attempted by any proteſtant writer before, might meet with general acceptation. Accordingly, propoſals were publiſhed for ſending abroad ſuch a work, and the offer very well received; and ſuch encouragements given, as induced him to proſecute with diligence the great deſign he had formed, and at length finiſhed, of a copious Hiſtory of Church Affairs, from the firſt entrance of Chriſtianity into this Iſland, to the cloſe of the reign of Henry VII. This all parties allowed to be a work of great labour and learning, methodically and elegantly written; but in other reſpects they differed, as might well be ſuppoſed, in their judgments concerning its merit.

After the pains this book coſt him, our author thought a ſeaſon of repoſe neceſſary; or, as he himſelf expreſſes it, judged it convenient 'to breathe a little after a folio;' yet without dropping or diſcontinuing his former deſign. But knowing that it required not only aſſiduity and vigilance, but the utmoſt prudence and circumſpection likewiſe, he choſe to act cautiouſly, and rather to apologize to the public for his delay, than to precipitate matters in order to hurry his work through the preſs. In the year 1713, he was conſecrated a biſhop, by Dr. George Hickes, who was himſelf conſecrated Suffragan of Thetford, by the deprived biſhops of Norwich, Ely and Peterborough, Feb. 23, 1694.

In the ſucceeding year came abroad the ſecond volume of his Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, which met with a different reception from perſons of different ſentiments, being applauded by ſome and cenſured by others. Of the latter there were thoſe who made a conſiderable figure in the learned world, againſt whoſe objections the author thought it incumbent upon him to write. As this volume took in the entire account of the Reformation, and ſtruggles with the puritans from their firſt appearance, to the overturning of our conſtitution in church and ſtate; ſo it muſt be naturally ſuppoſed, that a man of Mr. Collier's principles could never treat theſe delicate ſubjects, without affording ſome room, for ſuch as were deſirous of criticizing him, to take offence. Dr. Nicholſon, biſhop of Derry, has treated him with great ſeverity, not to ſay more, in the character he has given of his works. Biſhop Burnet and biſhop Kennet, who were infinitely better judges as well as writers, have corrected him with great decency. He has exhibited one ſhining inſtance of impartiality in diſculpating the preſbyterians from the falſe and ſcandalous imputations that had been thrown upon them, as if they conſented to, or leaſt temporized in, the murder of king Charles I, from which he has vindicated them with equal perſpicuity and juſtice; and has fully ſhown, that as they only had it in their power to oppoſe, ſo to the utmoſt extent of that power they did oppoſe, and proteſt againſt that bloody fact, both before and after it was committed.

As he grew in years, that great ſhare of health which he enjoyed was interrupted by frequent attacks of the ſtone, to which there is no doubt that his ſedentary life might much contribute; ſo that from this time we hear of nothing that he publiſhed further, excepting a collection of ſermons, and ſome ſmaller pieces prefixed to other men's works. He lived however ſeveral years in an indifferent ſtate of health, ſometimes tolerably free, and at others grievouſly afflicted by his old diſtemper, which brought

him to the grave, April 26, 1726; and, three days after, his body was interred in the churchyard of St. Pancras, where there is no monument or memorial of ſo diſtinguiſhed a character. He was in the ſeventy-ſixth year of his age, and preſerved the free uſe of his ſenſes to the very laſt.

As to his character, it may be inferred from what has already been advanced in our account of his works; and it therefore only remains to be added, that his morals were unexceptionable; and that, as his conduct had in it all the regularity becoming a clergyman, ſo his behaviour had nothing ſtiff or pedantic, but all that life, ſpirit, and innocent freedom, which conſtitute the good-breeding of a gentleman. His reputation as a man of letters extended beyond the bounds of his own country; for the learned and ingenious father Courbeville, who tranſlated into French the Hero of Balthazar Gracian, in the preface of that work, ſpeaks in the higheſt terms of praiſe of our author's miſcellaneous works, which he ſays ſet him on a level with Montaigne, St. Evremond, La Bruyere, &c. The ſame reverend and learned perſon tranſlated into French, Mr. Collier's 'Short View of the Engliſh Stage,' and thence takes occaſion to ſpeak of him again, with all the marks of admiration and eſteem poſſible.

In the new edition of the Biographia Britannica, his errors have been cenſured by Dr. Kippis with great freedom. It is certainly to be lamented that he was loſt to the church and ſtate, by an adherence to the hopeleſs, and we may add, abſurd and indefenſible cauſe of James II. This gave a bias to all his writings, except his Eſſays. In his Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory, a work of great ability, his inclination toward popery, and his diſlike of the reformers, is too obvious. But theſe are the prejudices which have ever attached to the non-juring cauſe, although in our days, they may be leſs openly declared. Yet it ought never to be forgot, that Collier was a man of ſtrict principle, and great ſincerity, for to that he ſacrificed all the moſt flattering proſpects that could have been preſented to him, and died at an advanced age in the profeſſion and belief in which he had lived. He will long be remembered as the reformer of the ſtage, an attempt which he made, and in which he was ſucceſsful, ſingle-handed, againſt a confederacy of dramatic talents the moſt brilliant that ever did honour to the Britiſh ſtage.

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THE reputation of poſſeſſing a *fine taſte*, is at preſent eſteemed ſo very deſireable, that it is to be feared it has driven many from the borders of ignorance into the very centre of affectation. Taſte is undoubtedly that quality, which enables us to point out the beauties and defects in works of art, which makes us feel a pleaſure in the one, and a diſlike with the other; but an affectation of this is, when, following a particular faſhion, or going down the ſtream of popular notions, we pretend to be pleaſed with beauties, which we cannot diſcover or feel, and to be diſguſted with defects which are not of our own finding out. This affectation of taſte, however, is more conſpicuous for its good-nature than its ſeverity. It appears moſtly in men, who pretend to be pleaſed with what pleaſes men of taſte, who have the power of diſcerning; and there are times when it not only impoſes on the individual, but even upon whole bodies of men.

With reſpect to muſical entertainments, I am afraid that this often is the caſe, particularly in two inſtances, the oratorio and the Italian opera. Although the public are ſo good-natured as to flock in great numbers to

thoſe entertainments, I ſtrongly ſuſpect that the majority are rather following the faſhion, than gratifying their own inclination, and I have never found a man who would ſpeak his mind freely, who did not avow that he wiſhed both the oratorio and the opera had been much ſhorter; that it was with difficulty he kept back the uſual expreſſion of languor, and that the excellence of the muſic was too much above his comprehenſion to keep his attention lively. Even ſome muſical *amateurs* have made a ſimilar confeſſion; and it is undoubtedly with a view to relieve the languor of the audience, that, for ſome years paſt, the managers of our oratorios have, inſtead of one whole work of our immortal Handel, preſented detached parts or ſelections, with an intermixture of inſtrumental muſic, and ſuch novelties as may attract and preſerve the attention.

Theſe are not circumſtances, however, that either do, or ought to detract from the merit of Handel. They only ſerve to prove that the common taſte does not willingly comprehend his talents, that the common ear does not receive pleaſure from compoſitions ſo different from thoſe with which it is familiar, and that to receive pleaſure from his works, or the works of any other great compoſer, there muſt be ſomewhat of a congeniality of ſpirit between the compoſer and his audience. We may be ſatisfied of this by referring to ſome other caſes. What effect, for example, would the fineſt harangue of one of our moſt celebrated and eloquent ſenators produce upon a company of clowns? They could not underſtand its language, and it would be miſerable affectation, indeed, if they pretended to feel its beauties. They might probably ſay he was a *fine ſpoken man*, but his *fine ſpeaking* would not induce them to ſit three hours upon the *liſten*, far leſs to return a ſecond time.

The muſical performances I have mentioned, the *opera* and the *oratorio*, ſeem, therefore, to me, to have rather acquired a faſhion than an intereſt. An opera is ſuch an aſſemblage of perſons of faſhion and diſtinction, of all that want to ſee, and all that want to be ſeen, that the entertainments preſented are ſubordinate to the high conſideration of its being abſolutely neceſſary to exhibit oneſelf there at certain times, and to rank as the patrons of muſic, which is ill underſtood, and dancing, which cannot be imitated. In the caſe of the oratorio, a difference muſt be obſerved here. It may be ſaid with truth, that real taſte would not have been deprived of much gratification, if the Italian opera had never been invented; but the oratorio is avowedly a compoſition of great ſublimity, power, and pathos. It is, however, ſingular in its ſtructure, and deviates from the more familiar imitation of life preſented in tragedy and comedy, and therefore it requires a love for muſic, ſtronger than is to be found in the generality of mankind, and particularly a reliſh for *recitative*, which muſt in part be artificial, for recitative itſelf, is moſt unnatural. Now this love and this reliſh, if we wiſh to be thought men of taſte, muſt be aſſumed; we muſt affect to be highly gratified often where we are moſt wearied, and wiſh for a repetition of that which we already think too tedious. Whoever does reliſh the compoſitions of Handel, poſſeſſes undoubtedly a true taſte, a taſte to be envied, and a taſte which no man would part with for meaner gratifications, however ſanctioned by faſhion or cuſtom. But it is a rare taſte; I do not think it is general in this country, and yet in this country principally, Handel has his fame, and his works their encouragement. In Italy, he cannot be endured—I muſt not, however, quit this ſubject, without adverting to the patronage his preſent majeſty has ever beſtowed on the works of Handel, a patronage which does equal honour to his head and heart, which marks the piety of the man, and the taſte of the connoiſſeur.

If we turn to the ſiſter art of *painting*, we ſhall find that public approbation is in like manner regulated by the taſte of a few, which all follow without diſcernment or feeling. Our public exhibitions demonſtrate, that if the majority are left to themſelves, they are not captivated by the higher branches of the art, and were portraits omitted from the Royal Academy, it is to be feared that inſtitution would be no inconſiderable ſufferer. Here, too, a few articles are pointed out by real taſte, which the generality affect to admire, yet if their opinion had been firſt conſulted, would have probably undervalued. It is no uncommon thing for a man of candour to ſay, 'That is reckoned the beſt picture in the room, and it is painted by the firſt of our artiſts, but I own I can ſee no merit in it.' It is not diſcreditable for any man to make this avowal. His not ſeeing the merit of the picture is not the fault of the artiſt; but it merely ſhows that the ſpectator does not look with the eye of an artiſt or connoiſſeur. Few are poſſeſſed of ſuch an eye, but how miſerable the affectation when *all* pretend to a judgment which is really given to a very ſmall proportion of mankind?

I have been led into the ſubject of affecting a taſte for the fine arts by reading an extraordinary fragment found among the papers of the late ſir Joſhua Reynolds, and which muſt ever be peruſed with admiration, and an uncommon proof of candour and ingenuouſneſs—and as a leſſon to pretended *connoiſſeurs* and affected *virtuoſis* in all the fine arts. It will amply explain what I have left unexplained on this ſubject; and it will vindicate the *honeſt* and *common* eye from the charge of ſtupidity, which, if it could be urged, is ſtill leſs blameable than the foppery of an affected taſte without feeling or diſcernment. I am miſtaken, too, if men of real taſte have not at one or other period of their lives experienced the ſame circumſtances, which are thus admirably narrated.

'It has frequently happened, (ſays this great painter) as I was informed by the keeper of the Vatican, that many of thoſe whom he had conducted through the various apartments of that edifice, when about to be diſmiſſed, have aſked for the works of Raffaelle, and would not believe that they had already paſſed through the rooms where they are preſerved; ſo little impreſſion had thoſe performances made on them. One of the firſt painters now in France once told me, that this circumſtance happened to himſelf; though he now looks on Raffaelle with that veneration, which he deſerves from all painters and lovers of the art. I remember very well my own diſappointment, when I firſt viſited the Vatican; but on confeſſing my feelings to a brother-ſtudent, of whoſe ingenuouſneſs I had a high opinion, he acknowledged that the works of Raffaelle had the ſame effect on him, or rather that they did not produce the effect which he expected. This was a great relief to my mind; and on enquiring further of other ſtudents, I found that thoſe perſons only, who from natural imbecility appeared to be incapable of ever reliſhing thoſe divine performances, made pretenſions to inſtantaneous raptures on firſt beholding them.—In juſtice to myſelf, however, I muſt add, that though diſappointed and mortified at not finding myſelf enraptured with the works of this great maſter, I did not for a moment conceive or ſuppoſe that the name of Raffaelle, and thoſe admirable paintings in particular, owed their reputation to the ignorance or prejudice of mankind; on the contrary, my not reliſhing them as I was conſcious I ought to have done, was one of the moſt humiliating circumſtances that ever happened to me. I found myſelf in the midſt of works executed upon principles, with which I was unacquainted: I felt my ignorance, and ſtood abaſhed. All the indigeſted notions of painting, which I had brought with me from England, where the art was in the loweſt ſtate it had ever been, (it could not indeed be

lower) were to be totally done away, and eradicated from my mind. It was neceſſary, as it is expreſſed on a very ſolemn occaſion, that I ſhould become as *a little child.*—Notwithſtanding my diſappointment, I proceeded to copy ſome of thoſe excellent works. I viewed them again and again; I even affected to feel their merit, and to admire them, more than I really did. In a ſhort time, a new taſte and new perceptions began to dawn upon me; and I was convinced that I had originally formed a falſe opinion of the perfection of art, and that this great painter was well entitled to the high rank which he holds in the eſtimation of the world. The truth is, that if theſe works had really been what I expected, they would have contained beauties ſuperficial and alluring, but by no means ſuch as would have entitled them to the great reputation, which they have ſo long and ſo juſtly obtained.

'Having ſince that period frequently revolved this ſubject in my mind, I am now clearly of opinion, that a reliſh for the higher excellencies of art is an *acquired taſte, which no man ever poſſeſſed without long cultivation, and great labour and attention.* On ſuch occaſions as that which I have mentioned, we are often aſhamed of our apparent dulneſs; as if it were to be expected that our minds, like tinder, ſhould inſtantly catch fire from the divine ſpark of Raffaelle's genius. I flatter myſelf that now it would be ſo, and that I have a juſt and lively perception of his great powers; but let it be always remembered, that the excellence of his ſtyle is not on the ſurface, but lies deep; and at the firſt view is ſeen but miſtily. It is the florid ſtyle, which ſtrikes at once, and captivates the eye for the time, without ever ſatisfying the judgment. Nor does painting in this reſpect differ from other arts. A juſt poetical taſte, and the acquiſition of a nice diſcriminative muſical ear, are equally the work of time. Even the eye, however perfect in itſelf, is often unable to diſtinguiſh between the brilliancy of two diamonds; though the experienced jeweller will be amazed at its blindneſs; not conſidering that there was a time when he himſelf could not have been able to pronounce which of the two was the moſt perfect, and that his own power of diſcrimination was acquired by ſlow and imperceptible degrees.'

Thus far our admirable artiſt; and after ſuch a confeſſion from him, I hope that it will not be thought diſreputable to acknowledge that we do *not* feel that admiration to which we are ſtrangers. It may ſerve to check the raptures of thoſe, who are prepared to ſee with other eyes than their own, and affect the higheſt ſatisfaction where they have ſcarcely the loweſt gratification; and it will not be publiſhed in vain, if it reduced the *judges* to their proper number, and diminiſhes the number of thoſe critics, who look for faults through the glaſs of ignorance, or pretend to diſcover beauties that are beyond their reach. And let it be remembered, that it is not abſolutely neceſſary that all men ſhould be *born* with diſcernment, which moſt men have found it difficult to *acquire*, and that to conceive the merits and be delighted with the beauties of an artiſt, a poet, or a muſician, it is neceſſary to approach nearer to their genius, than is conſiſtent with the general lot of mankind.

CONSIDERATIONS ON PROPRIETY.

THE terms *congruity* and *propriety* are not applicable to any ſingle object; they imply a plurality, and obviouſly ſignify a particular relation between different objects. Thus we currently ſay, that a decent garb is ſuitable or proper for a judge; modeſt behaviour for a young woman; and a lofty ſtyle for an epic poem; and on the other hand, that it is unſuitable

or incongruous to ſee a little woman ſunk in an overgrown farthingale, a coat richly embroidered covering coarſe and dirty linen, a mean ſubject in an elevated ſtyle, an elevated ſubject in a mean ſtyle; a firſt miniſter darning his wife's ſtocking, or a reverend prelate in lawn ſleeves dancing a hornpipe.

The perception we have of this relation, which ſeems peculiar to man, cannot proceed from any other cauſe, but from a *ſenſe* of congruity or propriety; for ſuppoſing us deſtitute of that ſenſe, the terms would be to us unintelligible. It is a matter of experience, that congruity or propriety, wherever perceived, is agreeable, and that impropriety is diſagreeable. The only difficulty is, to aſcertain what are the particular objects that in conjunction ſuggeſt theſe relations; for there are many objects that do not: the ſea, for example, viewed in conjunction with a picture, or a man viewed in conjunction with a mountain, ſuggeſt not either congruity or incongruity. It ſeems natural to infer, what will be found true by induction, that we never perceive propriety or impropriety, but among things that are connected together by ſome relation; ſuch as a man and his actions; a principal and his acceſſaries; a ſubject and its ornaments. We are indeed ſo framed by nature, as, among things ſo connected, to require a certain ſuitableneſs or correſpondence, termed congruity or propriety, and to be diſpleaſed when we find the oppoſite relation of incongruity or impropriety.

If things connected be the ſubject of congruity, it is reaſonable beforehand to expect, that a degree of congruity ſhould be required proportioned to the degree of connection. And upon examination we find this to hold in fact; where the relation is intimate, as between a cauſe and its effect, a whole and its parts, we require the ſtricteſt congruity; but where the relation is ſlight, or accidental, as among things jumbled together in the ſame place, we require little or no congruity; the ſtricteſt propriety is required in behaviour and manner of living; becauſe a man is connected with theſe by the relation of cauſe and effect; the relation between an edifice and the ground it ſtands upon, is of the moſt intimate kind: and therefore the ſituation of a great houſe ought to be lofty; its relation to neighbouring hills, rivers, plains, being that of propinquity only, demands but a ſmall ſhare of congruity; among members of the ſame club, the congruity ought to be conſiderable, as well as among other things placed for ſhow in the ſame niche; among paſſengers in a ſtage-coach, we require very little congruity; and ſtill leſs at a public ſpectacle.

Congruity or propriety is ſo nearly allied to beauty, as commonly to be held a ſpecies of it; and yet they differ ſo eſſentially as never to coincide; beauty, like colour, is placed upon a ſingle ſubject; congruity upon a plurality: further, a thing beautiful in itſelf, may, with relation to other things, produce the ſtrongeſt ſenſe of incongruity. Examples of congruity and incongruity are furniſhed in plenty by the relation between a ſubject and its ornaments. A literary performance intended merely for amuſement, is ſuſceptible of much ornament, as well as a muſic room or a play-houſe, for in gayety, the mind has a peculiar reliſh for ſhow and decoration. The moſt gorgeous apparel, however improper in tragedy, is not unſuitable to opera actors; the truth is, an opera, in its preſent form, is a mighty fine thing; but as it deviates from nature or propriety in thoſe which are acceſſory. On the other hand, a ſerious and important ſubject admits not much ornament; nor a ſubject that of itſelf is extremely beautiful; and a ſubject that fills the mind with its loftineſs and grandeur, appears beſt in a dreſs altogether plain.

To a perſon of mean appearance, gorgeous apparel is unſuitable; which, beſide the incongruity, has a bad effect; for by contraſt it ſhows the

meanneſs of appearance in the ſtrongeſt light. Sweetneſs of look and manner requires ſimplicity of dreſs, joined with the greateſt elegance. A ſtately and majeſtic air requires ſumptuous apparel, which ought not to be gaudy, nor crowded with little ornaments. A woman of conſummate beauty can bear to be highly adorned, and yet ſhows beſt in a plain dreſs.

Propriety regulates not only the quantity of ornament, but alſo the kind. The ornaments that embelliſh a dancing-room ought to be all of them gay. No picture is proper for a church, but what has religion for its ſubject. All the ornaments upon a ſhield ought to relate to war; and Virgil, with great judgment, confines the carvings upon the ſhield of Æneas to the military hiſtory of the Romans; but this beauty is overlooked by Homer; but the bulk of the ſculpture upon the ſhield of Achilles, is of the arts of peace in general, and of joy and feſtivity in particular; the author of Telemachus betrays the ſame inattention, in deſcribing that young hero.

In judging of propriety with regard to ornaments, we muſt attend, not only to the nature of the ſubject that is to be adorned, but alſo to the circumſtances in which it is placed; the ornaments that are proper for a ball, will appear not altogether ſo decent at public worſhip; and the ſame perſon ought to dreſs differently for a marriage-feaſt and for a burial. Nothing is more intimately related to a man, than his ſentiments, words, and actions; and therefore we require here the ſtricteſt conformity. When we find what we thus require, we have a lively ſenſe of propriety; when we find the contrary, our ſenſe of impropriety is not leſs lively. Hence the univerſal diſtaſte of affectation, which conſiſts in making a ſhow of greater delicacy and refinement than is ſuited either to the character or circumſtance of the perſon.

When any ſlight incongruity is perceived in an accidental combination of perſons or things, as of paſſengers in a ſtage-coach, or of individuals dining at an ordinary; the painful emotion of incongruity, after a momentary exiſtence, vaniſhes without producing any effect. But this is not the caſe of propriety and impropriety; voluntary acts, whether words or deeds, are imputed to the author; when proper we reward him with our eſteem; when improper, we puniſh him with our contempt. Let us ſuppoſe, for example, a generous action ſuited to the character of the author, which raiſes in him and in every ſpectator the pleaſant emotion of propriety: this emotion generates in the author both ſelf-eſteem and joy: the former when he conſiders the relation to the action, and the latter when he conſiders the good opinion that others will entertain of him; the ſame emotion of propriety produceth in the ſpectators eſteem for the author of the action: and when they think of themſelves, it alſo produceth, by means of contraſt, an emotion of humility. To diſcover the effects of an unſuitable action, we muſt invert each of theſe circumſtances; the painful emotion of impropriety generates in the author of the action both humility and ſhame; the former when he conſiders his relation to the action, and the latter when he conſiders what others will think of him: the ſame emotion of impropriety produces in the ſpectators contempt for the author of the action; and it alſo produceth, by means of contraſt, when they think of them, an emotion of ſelf eſteem. Here then are many different emotions, derived from the ſame action, conſidered in different views by different perſons; a machine provided with many ſprings, and not a little complicated. Propriety of action, it would ſeem, is a chief favourite of nature, when ſuch care and ſolicitude is beſtowed on it. It is not left to our own choice; but, like juſtice, is required at our hands; and, like juſtice, is enforced by natural rewards and puniſhments; a man cannot, with impunity, do any thing unbecoming or improper; he ſuffers the chaſtiſement of contempt inflicted by others, and of ſhame inflicted by

himſelf. An apparatus ſo complicated, and ſo ſingular, ought to rouſe our attention: for nature doth nothing in vain; and we may conclude, with great certainty, that this curious branch of the human conſtitution is intended for ſome valuable purpoſe.

A groſs impropriety is puniſhed with contempt and indignation, which are vented againſt the offended by correſponding external expreſſions; nor is even the ſlighteſt impropriety ſuffered to paſs without ſome degree of contempt. But there are improprieties, of the ſlighter kind, that provoke laughter; of which we have examples without end, in the blunders and abſurdities of our own ſpecies; ſuch improprieties receive a different puniſhment, as will appear by what follows. The emotions of contempt and of laughter occaſioned by an impropriety of this kind, uniting intimately in the mind of the ſpectator, are expreſſed externally by a peculiar ſort of laugh, termed a laugh of deriſion or ſcorn. An impropriety that thus moves not only contempt, but laughter, is diſtinguiſhed by the epithet of ridiculous; and a laugh of deriſion or ſcorn is the puniſhment provided for it by nature. Nor ought it to eſcape obſervation, that we are ſo fond of inflicting this puniſhment, as ſometimes to exert it even againſt creatures of an inferior ſpecies; witneſs a turkey-cock ſwelling with pride, and ſtrutting with diſplayed feathers; a ridiculous object, which in a gay mood is apt to provoke a laugh of deriſion.

We muſt not expect that theſe different improprieties are ſeparated by diſtinct boundaries; for of improprieties, from the ſlighteſt to the moſt groſs, from the moſt riſible to the moſt ſerious, there are degrees without end. Hence it is, that in viewing ſome unbecoming actions, too riſible for anger, and too ſerious for deriſion, the ſpectator feels a ſort of mixed emotion, partaking both of deriſion and of anger; which accounts for an expreſſion, common with reſpect to the impropriety of ſome actions, that we know not whether to laugh or be angry.

It cannot fail to be obſerved, that in the caſe of a riſible impropriety, which is always ſlight, the contempt we have for the offender is extremely faint, though deriſion, its gratification, is extremely pleaſant. This diſproportion between a paſſion and its gratification, ſeems not conformable to the analogy of nature. In looking about for a ſolution, we muſt reflect upon what is laid down above, that an improper action not only moves our contempt for the author, but alſo, by means of contraſt, ſwell the good opinion we have of ourſelves. This contributes more than any other article, to the pleaſure we have in ridiculing follies and abſurdities; and accordingly, it is well known, that they who put the greateſt value upon themſelves are the moſt prone to laugh at others. Pride, which is a vivid paſſion, pleaſant in itſelf, and not leſs ſo in its gratification, would ſingly be ſufficient to account for the pleaſure of ridicule, without borrowing any aid from contempt. Hence appears the reaſon of a noted obſervation, that we are the moſt diſpoſed to ridicule the blunders and abſurdities of others, when we are in high ſpirits; for in high ſpirits, ſelf-conceit diſplays itſelf in more than ordinary vigour.

With regard to the final cauſes of congruity and impropriety; one, regarding congruity, is pretty obvious, that the ſenſe of congruity, as one principle of the fine arts, contributes in a remarkable degree to our entertainment. Congruity, indeed, with reſpect to quantity, coincides with proportion: when the parts of a building are nicely adjuſted to each other, it may be ſaid indifferently, that it is agreeable by the congruity, or by the proportion of its parts. But propriety which regards voluntary agents only, can never be the ſame with proportion; a very long noſe is diſproportioned, but cannot be termed *improper*. In ſome inſtances, it is true, impropriety coincides with diſproportion in the ſame ſubject, but

never in the ſame reſpect; for example, a very little man buckled to a long ſword; conſidering the man and the ſword with reſpect to ſize, we perceive a diſproportion; conſidering the ſword as the choice of the man, we perceive an impropriety.

The ſenſe of impropriety with reſpect to miſtakes, blunders, and abſurdities, is happily contrived for the good of mankind. In the ſpectators, it is productive of mirth and laughter, excellent recreation in an interval from buſineſs. But this is a trifle in reſpect to what follows. It is painful to be the ſubject of ridicule; and to puniſh with ridicule the man who is guilty of an abſurdity, tends to put him more upon his guard in time coming. Thus even the moſt innocent blunder is not committed with impunity; becauſe were errors licenſed where they do no hurt, inattention would grow into a habit, and be the occaſion of much hurt.

The final cauſe of propriety as to moral duties, is of all the moſt illuſtrious. To have a juſt notion of it, the moral duties that reſpect others muſt be diſtinguiſhed from thoſe that reſpect ourſelves. Fidelity, gratitude, and the forbearing injury, are examples of the firſt ſort; temperance, modeſty, firmneſs of mind, are examples of the other; the former are made duties by the ſenſe of juſtice; the latter by the ſenſe of propriety. Here is a final cauſe of the ſenſe of propriety, that muſt rouſe our attention. It is undoubtedly the intereſt of every man, to ſuit his behaviour to the dignity of his nature, and to the ſtation allotted him by Providence; for ſuch rational conduct contributes in every reſpect to happineſs, by preſerving health, by procuring plenty, by gaining the eſteem of others, and, which of all is the greateſt bleſſing, by gaining a juſtly-founded ſelf-eſteem. But in a matter ſo eſſential to our well-being, even ſelf-intereſt is not relied on: the powerful authority of duty is ſuperadded to the motive of intereſt. The God of nature, in all things eſſential to our happineſs, hath obſerved one uniform method: to keep us ſteady in our conduct, he has fortified us with natural laws and principles, which prevent many aberrations, that would daily happen were we totally ſurrendered to ſo fallible a guide as human reaſon. Propriety cannot rightly be conſidered in another light, than as the natural law that regulates our conduct with reſpect to ourſelves; as juſtice is the natural law that regulates our conduct with reſpect to others. We call propriety a law, not leſs than juſtice; both are equally rules of conduct that ought to be obeyed; propriety includes this obligation; for to ſay an action is proper, is, in other words, to ſay, that it ought to be performed.

But it muſt, in the next place, be obſerved, that to the ſenſe of propriety, as well as of juſtice, are annexed the ſanction of rewards and puniſhments; which evidently prove the one to be a law as well as the other. The ſatisfaction a man has in doing his duty, joined with the eſteem and good will of others, is the reward that belongs to both equally. The puniſhments alſo, though not the ſame, are nearly allied, and differ in degree more than in quality. Diſobedience to the law of juſtice, is puniſhed with remorſe: diſobedience to the law of propriety, with ſhame, which is remorſe in a lower degree. Every tranſgreſſion of the law of juſtice raiſes indignation in the beholder; and ſo doth every flagrant tranſgreſſion of the law of propriety. Slighter improprieties receive a milder puniſhment; they are always rebuked with ſome degree of contempt, and frequently with deriſion. In general, it is true, that the rewards and puniſhments annexed to the ſenſe of propriety, are ſlighter in degree than thoſe annexed to the ſenſe of juſtice; which is wiſely ordered, becauſe duty to others is ſtill more eſſential to ſociety than duty to ourſelves; for ſociety could not ſubſiſt a moment, were individuals not protected from the headſtrong and turbulent paſſions of their neighbours.

B. E.

WHAT IT IS TO BE TOO NICE.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

SIR,

AS I am greatly averſe to all round-about ways of explaining my meaning, and am not uſed to long prefaces, I ſhall give you my unhappy caſe directly, without any further introduction —I am a tradeſman in a tolerable way of life, and my greateſt uneaſineſs is owing to a vapouriſh over-nice wife, who is eternally contriving ſome new vexation both for me and herſelf; and ſhe is never more troubleſome than when ſhe is fixing on ſome facts, or inſtances, which ſhe quickly improves to general practices, or on ſome principle fundamentally right, which being admitted by thoſe whom ſhe talks with on the ſubject, her wild fertile imagination broods over, until it becomes big with abſurdity.

The many adulterations practiſed on proviſions, are the objects of her preſent reveries; and the natural diſadvantages the inhabitants of the metropolis lie under in their diet, which will undoubtedly now and then be pretty obvious, and which a country couſin in a late journey to town has put into her head, have made her mad to leave London, as ſoon as the ſpring comes on, although ſhe muſt be ſenſible I am not yet able to retire with decency, conſidering the hardneſs of the times, and the difficulty of getting in one's accounts. And yet, really, I am at my wit's end to procure her any proviſions which I can prevail with her to eat.

Bread, the ſtaff of life, and which, thank God, I can afford to buy even at the preſent price, ſhe has long dreaded to touch, being ſenſible, as ſhe ſays, that there is very little flour in it; and that it is chiefly a compoſition of whiting, bones, and allum, with, perhaps, many other noxious ingredients, which we may never be able to diſcover. She will not believe that beer is made of malt, ſince ſhe has heard ſo much of molaſſes, wormwood, broom, coculus Indicus, quaſſia, and other ſubſtitutes. I verily believe ſhe thinks the counties of Kent and Worceſter do not produce a ſingle ounce of hops. Even her favourite tea goes againſt her ſtomach, ſince ſhe has heard ſome practices of the dealers in that article hinted at, and ſince ſhe was told laſt ſummer, that the tea-drinking houſes about town make money of their tea-leaves, though I cannot conceive how they can do that without infuſing them over again.

In the articles of butcher's meat, ſhe quite confounds me, and obſerves an almoſt continual Lent. Veal ſhe cannot endure (not for its price, for I will do her the juſtice to ſay, ſhe never minds the *price* of any thing) but becauſe the calves are fed upon nothing but chalk, have the blood drained almoſt all away by repeated bleedings, and when finally killed, the meat is blown up with the ſweet breath of a butcher's boy, who, perhaps, has ſome diſeaſe upon him at the time. Pork ſhe never ſees, without apprehending that it is either fed at ſome diſtiller's, or at Greenland dock. She is terrified at the thoughts of mutton, as our ſheep are all barbarouſly over-drove, and when they arrive in London are killed under a high fever; as are alſo our oxen, with this additional circumſtance in the latter, that we have none but what are fattened upon oil cakes. Nay, ſhe ſometimes upbraids our oxen with being no better than *cow-beef*. Nor are our milk or vegetables one whit more tolerable, or leſs adulterated. The milk is diluted before it comes out of the cow-houſes, with warm water and whiting; and our garden-ſtuff is all forced by the ordure and muck of this vaſt aggregation of mankind and hackney-horſes.

She maintains, that we cannot get bit of any thing to eat, that is really what we are made to believe it is. My wife bids me, only look upon the ſhore of the Thames at low water, to conceive the purity of the water we drink; and, as to the air we breathe, it is a vile heterogenous mixture of coal ſmoke, the fumes of many crouded unwholeſome profeſſions, compounded with the rich effluvia of our own bodies; all which duly mixed, make a moſt dainty element for reſpiration. But this is not all: bad as the air is, the grand complaint is, that we have not enough of it. Although we have lived theſe twenty years upon the ſide of a hill (I mean Dowgate-hill) ſheltered from the north, and all our family look well and plump, we muſt have a country-houſe for the ſake of more air. We have tried this experiment, but to no purpoſe. I have made the tour of London in country-houſes, and all of them have ſome fault or other; either there is a large garden, and the houſe too ſmall; or a large houſe and the garden too ſmall, either there is no good road to it, or there is too much road; either a coach cannot reach it, or we have nothing but coaches all day raiſing the duſt; either we have too many neighbours, or we have no neighbours at all; either it is too far for a walk, and not far enough for a ride: in ſhort, nothing in or about London will anſwer my wife's purpoſe, or is fit for a Chriſtian to live in.

Then, ſir, this ſame nicety or overnicety extends yet further—If any of us happen to be ſick, as I truſt may be the caſe in the healthieſt ſituations, ſhe will not have a phyſician, becauſe they charge a guinea for every viſit, nor an apothecary, for fear he ſhould overload us with medicines; and then thoſe medicines are nothing but chalk and water, and *powder of poſt*, as ſhe call it, and good for nothing but to work up a bill.—Some part of our houſe is going to ruin every day, becauſe ſhe will not have a carpenter; our London workmen are all idle rogues; and our ſervants—O! ſir—they are precioufly watched, but no more than they deſerve, for ſhe maintains they are all thieves although I do not remember ſhe was ever able to bring home to one of them ſo much as the felony of a cabbage-ſtalk.

Nor is this all, although I dare ſay, moſt London huſbands think it enough—ſhe will go no more to church, becauſe churches are ſo damp and unwholeſome, that it is impoſſible to avoid catching cold; and public places of amuſement, of which ſhe uſed to be very fond, are now ſo crouded, and ſo many naſty breaths, and diſagreeable people, and ſuch a piece of work to get in, and ſuch another piece of work to get out, that it is really making a pain of pleaſure—a ſort of manufactory, in which, I aſſure you, Mr. Editor, ſhe is wonderfully expert.

Our buildings too, are nothing like what are in the country, and our ſtreets by no means fit to walk upon, in coloured ſhoes particularly; and, as to hackney-coaches, one need only look at the kind of paſſengers in them, to ſee how unfit they are for any perſon who ſtudied the ſafety of his health, or the cleanlineſs of his garments. Even our friends ſomehow are become not quite to her taſte. Living in a populous city like London, viſits are too frequent; one has never a minute to oneſelf; and if you take a country-houſe near London, why what is it but a cake-ſhop and coffeehouſe to all your acquaintances on a Sunday? I ought to have mentioned, when ſpeaking of hackney-coaches, that my wife has ſeveral times dropt hints about a chariot, although in a very indirect way. Theſe I have never paid the leaſt attention to, for the beſt of all poſſible reaſons, becauſe I cannot afford it.

But, as all *nicety* muſt have ſome origin, and as it is what Londoners ſeldom take up a random, after having mixed in the ſociety of a town-

life; perhaps, you will ſay, 'Oh! this wife of your's, we preſume Mr. Softly came from ſome more magnificent, airy and capacious town, than London; we preſume ſhe wiſhes you to retire to the eſtate of her father, whoſe ſole heireſs ſhe was; or, we preſume, ſhe brought you an immenſe fortune, and ſo has a right to her humour; or we preſume that' ——

I beg, Mr. Editor, that you will preſume no further—You are plaguily out in all your conjectures: if any of theſe, or all of theſe put together could be pleaded in mitigation, I might, at leaſt, have the ſatisfaction of knowing where my wife learned to be nice; but as matters are, I know no more whence ſhe derived her preſent taſte than you ſeem to do. What I do know, however, I will tell you, and you and your readers ſhall judge: now that my hand is in, I may add, 'in for a penny, in for a pound,' as we ſay in the city, and I will ſpeak a bit of my mind, come of it what may, for I cannot be worſe off.

Know then, Mr. Editor, that about twenty years ago I married Rachael Brewis, ſpinſter, third daughter of John Brewis, of the county of York; he was not, ſtrictly ſpeaking, a farmer, but rather a farmer's deputy; that is, a perſon who performs certain labour for a farmer, and receives certain pay weekly or daily, as may be agreed. I was then a young beginner in trade, and I fancied Rachael, becauſe ſhe was pretty and notable, and would make a good wife to a London ſhopkeeper. Affairs have flouriſhed with me ſince, I muſt ſay, and I ſhould have nothing to complain of, if ſhe had not been ſeized with the fit, or rather habit of being over-nice. Now, ſir, as to her comparing London and its conveniencies to where ſhe was born and brought up, I will tell you the exact truth. Her father's houſe was very airy; I muſt allow that; it was far enough from any thing like a ſtreet, or even a road paſſable above four months in the year; indeed, it was all air, and I dare ſay very pure, for there was nothing in the ſituation to hinder it from blowing in all quarters. Then as to proviſions, butchers meat, &c. nothing of this kind was to be ſeen in Goodman Brewis's houſe above three or four times a year. Fiſh we knew only by name, and did not underſtand whether their ſkins were covered with wool or horſe-hair. Poultry, indeed, there was in abundance, and it made a moſt luxurious diſh—for the inhabitants of the next market town. Vegetables, too, were not ſcarce, and I muſt ſay that for them, they were not *forced*, like our London garden ſtuff. What grew, grew the ſame from year to year, and I believe neither force nor fraud could have made them better or worſe. As to viſitors, we were not troubled with them deſignedly, for no one would come where there was nothing to be got; but if any traveller happened to loſe their way, we had now and then an opportunity to obliging them with a direction.—Our church might poſſibly be as damp and cold as the London ones, but as it was full three miles off, we were generally warm enough before we got there, and our parſon was ſeldom ſo tedious as to ſet us either a ſhivering or aſleep. As to our amuſements, I will ſay nothing of them, the neareſt town affording only punch and his wife once a year at the fair, and the place was not overcrouded, for it was in the fields.

Such, ſir, is the foundation on which my wife has built her vaſt ſuperſtructure of nicety; ſuch are the precedents to which ſhe appeals, when ſhe wiſhes to degrade London; ſuch are the compariſons ſhe would make between the comforts of the metropolis, and the bare exiſtence of Goodman Brewis on Gooſe-green in the North Riding. Many of our friends have been overheard to aſk, when my wife has been giving herſelf airs as abovementioned, 'Where could Mrs. Softly have learned all

this? How came ſhe by all this? Surely, ſhe talks like a great lady. She muſt have been born to it.'—— I hope their wonder will now ceaſe, for the above ſketch of birth, parentage, and education, ſhe well knows to be a true and particular account; and if ſhe can deny any part of it, or give any better reaſon for deſpiſing poor old London and its conveniencies, I hope, Mr. Editor, you will have no objection to admit her communication. In the mean time, as ſhe is a conſtant reader of your Magazine, I hope ſhe will not *take amiſs* that I have found a vent in it for *my* complaint. I am, &c.

SIMON SOFTLY.

PECULIARITIES IN THE SITUATION OF THE IRISH CLERGY.

At a Time when the Union has rendered every authentic Information reſpecting Ireland *of great Importance, the following will appear highly acceptable. It was communicated to that learned and uſeful Writer, Mr.* Giſborne, *by a Perſon of high Rank in the Iriſh Eſtabliſhment.*

1. IN the province of Munſter, the inhabitants are ſuppoſed to be one third of the eſtabliſhed church; one third Proteſtant Separatiſts; and one third Romaniſts. But the Proteſtant Separatiſts are more hoſtile to the clergy of the eſtabliſhment than the Romaniſts are. Hence, the clergy have frequent conteſts for their property; and their time is too much engroſſed by their attention to it.

The clergy of Ireland are far from being exactors in the articles of tithes. Throughout the kingdom they do not receive a twentieth. The majority of diſſenters, the lawleſs ſpirit of the people; exorbitant rents; non-reſidence; a prevailing ſpirit of lukewarmneſs in religion; and envy at the opulence of the higher eccleſiaſtics, are among the cauſes which have raiſed ſuch a ſpirit of oppoſition to our parochial clergy.

2. Throughout the other three provinces the majority of the Romaniſts is probably in the proportion of four to one. So that though in cities and towns proteſtant congregations are large; even well-beneficed clergymen in the country parts have often ſuch very ſmall audiences, that their exertions in the public diſcharge of their duty are apt to be too little invigorated.

From theſe two remarks it follows, that the clergy of the church of Ireland are particularly obliged to acquaint themſelves with the reaſonableneſs of conformity to their own church, and with the grounds of the Romiſh controverſy.

3. The country parts of Ireland are inhabited in a different manner from thoſe in England. A village is very rarely placed near a church; but the houſes, or rather cottages, are thinly ſcattered ove the whole pariſh, or over that union of pariſhes to which one church belongs.

4. The pariſhes, or unions, are of a much greater extent than in England; and many are of a magnitude incredible to Engliſhmen. Hence, and from the fact mentioned in the third remark, the difficulty of intercourſe with pariſhoners is increaſed; and in country churches there is a general omiſſion of divine ſervice in the afternoon. Hence likewiſe the clergy, ſituate in the country, cannot have the pleaſure and advantage of frequently converſing with each other; or, at leaſt, cannot enjoy ſociety among themſelves without trouble and expence. Hence too the property of the clergy becomes more open to oppreſſion; as drawing tithes is often impracticable.

The occaſional duties in the remote parts of large country pariſhes, are frequently done by ſome of the clergy, who live in the outſkirts, and by private agreement between the parties. There is a ſpecial ſtatute that a chapel

of eaſe may be erected, and a curate of it appointed, with the conſent of the dioceſan, and the majority of the pariſhioners of the eſtabliſhed church, who do not dwell within three miles of the pariſh church, or within two miles of any other church or chapel of the eſtabliſhment.

5. Other circumſtances unfavourable to the Iriſh parochial clergy are, the general want of that reſpectable middle claſs, which prevails ſo much in England, and which is ſo well adapted to their ſtation and diſpoſition; the inferior cultivation of learning, and of the arts, throughout this kingdom; and therefore the uncommonneſs of valuable books, and of literary converſation; the neceſſity of much attention to men of rank and property for protection from injury, in a country where the laws are feebly executed; the ſources of expence ariſing from the general proneneſs to ſocial and convivial life, among thoſe with whom the clergy can live; and from a numerous poor, who have no legal proviſion.

We have no poor-laws in this country. Every Sunday a collection is made from the whole congregation, as with you from communicants; and the money is given to a liſt of poor, agreed on by the miniſter and churchwardens. Theſe poor are pariſhioners of the eſtabliſhment. The number of our rich abſentees muſt greatly leſſen public and private contributions for the poor. In particular caſes our clergy recommend, and the rich give, in proportion to the diſtreſs; without regard to religious denominations.

6. Great numbers of country-pariſhes are without churches, notwithſtanding the largeneſs and frequency of parliamentary grants for building them. But obſtacles ariſe from inability to procure convenient ſituations, where thoſe of ruined churches are become inconvenient; and from the want of proper workmen and ſuperintendants.

Meeting-houſes, and Romiſh chapels, which are more humble ſtructures, and are built and repaired with greater zeal, are in ſufficient numbers about the country; and afford their reſpective congregations convenient opportunities of frequenting them. Objections however to building churches equally ſimple are not among the obſtacles to an increaſe of their number. A country church is ſcarcely ſeen with a tower or ſpire. The eſtated gentlemen themſelves ſhow a great indifference about the erection of churches.

In pariſhes which have no church, that is, are non-cures, there is very rarely a parſonage houſe, or reſidence; which ſerious men eſteem a great defect. Nor is there a curate in ſuch pariſhes; but the dioceſan allots to ſome neighbouring clergyman, moſt conveniently ſituate, a certain ſtipend for performing the occaſional duties. Marriages are too often allowed in private houſes; but when the ordinary forbids this practice, the parties ſometimes reſort to the ruins of the pariſh church.

7. Few country-clergymen have parſonage-houſes. Building, though by law the whole firſt expence, not exceeding the income of two years, is repaid to the builder or his heirs, within three years after a vacancy by the ſucceſſor (in each of the three following ſucceſſions, one fourth of the original ſum is leſſened until the whole is ſunk) and though the truſtees of the Board of Firſt-fruits allow by law one hundred pounds to every builder of a glebe-houſe; is too heavy a burder for the generality of the clergy. The builder muſt advance the money, or borrow it on his own ſecurity. The unſkilfulneſs or diſhoneſty of workmen deters perſons, who muſt in general be unacquainted with ſuch matters. And it is difficult to procure land for a proper ſituation; and for ſuch a farm, or glebe, as is neceſſary for the ſubſiſtence of a clergyman, often placed at a great diſtance from markets, and unable to purchaſe the common conveniencies of life.

The preſent as well as the preced-

ing remark ſhows that the members of the eſtabliſhment will probably decreaſe in pariſhes ſo circumſtanced; and that the ſubſtitution of curates in ſuch places is likely to be too frequent. The ſalaries of curates cannot be more than fifty pounds a year; and are ſcarcely ever leſs.

8. The archbiſhops and biſhops viſit their own dioceſes yearly. And the archbiſhops viſit the dioceſes of their reſpective provinces every third year. I remember to have read that Laud viſited the province of Canterbury; which is the laſt Engliſh archiepiſcopal viſitation. We have ſuch viſitations regularly every third year. The biſhops throughout the province are inhibited for about a month before the time; and the inhibition is uſually relaxed after the viſitation of each dioceſe. The archbiſhop at the time is veſted with all the canonical powers of the viſiting biſhop. If he diſcovers any thing amiſs in the dioceſe, he may repreſent it to the biſhop. Should the biſhop's own houſe be dilapidated, he can compel him to repair it. Our chancellors and archdeacons, as ſuch, never viſit. But the biſhops viſit every year; and in the third year they viſit previouſly to the archbiſhop's viſitation, in order to prepare matters for his grace's eaſe and ſatisfaction. Viſiting is no great burden to the archbiſhop. He receives the proxies; he continues as long as he chooſes at every biſhop's houſe; and, like the biſhops, he viſits at one place only in a dioceſe, the clergy coming from conſiderable diſtances to attend viſitations. While a biſhop is inhibited, if one of his clergy wants inſtitution to a benefice, application muſt be made to the archbiſhop.

The weight of the prelates, who in general have good leaſes holden under them, and large patronages, is very uſeful to the clergy in procuring them glebes, and protecting their property. The kingdom would ſoon emerge from many of the inconveniencies ſtated, if the readineſs of the landed gentlemen to ſell, at their extended value, moderate portions of land for glebes, equalled the endeavours of the prelates, to obtain proper places of reſidence for their clergy. We have one power unknown to you; that of being able to ſequeſter the income of a living for the purpoſe of building a houſe, where there is a glebe, and after poſſeſſion for two years. In other reſpects the powers of the Engliſh and Iriſh prelates are the ſame.

9. In ſome matters we have the advantage over your church. The form of *congé d'elire* is aboliſhed; our prelates being appointed by royal patent. Bonds of reſignation are declared ſimoniacal by our thirty-fifth canon. A Dublin ſynod of the year 1711, appointed good forms of prayer for priſoners, confined debtors, and criminals under ſentence of death. Our congregations univerſally uſe Brady and Tate's verſion of the pſalms.

The following calculations are taken from a memoir to an eccleſiaſtical map of Ireland, by Dr. Beaufort. The map itſelf is divided according to the dioceſes; and ſhows the churches, glebes, parſonage-houſes, &c. &c. by proper marks.

In Ireland there are pariſhes -	2436
Benefices with cure of ſouls -	1123
Sinecures, excluſive of the above benefices - - - - - - -	111
Churches - - - - - - -	1001
Glebe-houſes - - - - - -	354
Benefices without glebes -	366

The ſinecures abovementioned include deaneries and prebends. But very many of one deaneries and prebends are cures of ſouls. A few are ſinecures, like yours, ariſing from eſtates; or they are endowed with two thirds of the great tithes in ſome pariſh, where the vicar has the remaining third for ſerving the cure.

Account of the METHOD *of preparing* OPIUM *from* POPPIES *grown in* Great Britain, *equal in Quality to the beſt foreign* OPIUM. *By Mr.* Thomas Jones, *of Fiſh-ſtreet-hill.*

[From the Tranſactions of the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce.]

IN the ſummer of 1794, I cultivated a conſiderable number of White Poppies (entitled in the New London Pharmacopœia, Papaver Somniferum, and, in another place, Papaver Hortenſe ſemine albo) when a few of the heads or capſules having been broken off by the wind, I obſerved at the extremity of the ſtalks a ſubſtance in every reſpect reſembling Turkey opium. This accidental circumſtance bringing to my recollection its method of production, as related in the Encyclopædia and elſewhere, I wounded a conſiderable number of them with my penknife, and, in the courſe of the day, collected a ſmall quantity of the abovementioned ſubſtance. As this circumſtance took place while we were cutting lavender, it happened that an old experienced ſervant, who was afterward to diſtil it, was directing and aſſiſting, and we agreed that it was probably in effect equal to, and was certainly more pure than any we had ever ſeen.

From this period I have never entirely loſt ſight of the object I am now to conſider; but, on account of various avocations, and particularly my rhubarb plantation, which at this time required all the attention I could well ſpare, it was not in my power to engage in an undertaking of ſuch magnitude; and more eſpecially on a ſcale ſo extenſive as that which I had already determined to adopt, under a perſuaſion that experiments, when more confined, are for the moſt part fallacious.

As preparatory, however, I have not failed every year to repeat the operation, at once eſtabliſhing its practicability, and availing myſelf of many advantages which can only be derived from obſervation and experience.

The incloſed certificates will inform the ſociety that at length my plan has been carried into execution, but not with the degree of ſucceſs that ought, and might have been expected to attend ſo large and expenſive an experiment.

It muſt be confeſſed, that had I been at all aware what an almoſt Herculean labour I was about to encounter, I really ſuſpect whether my reſolution would have been equal to the taſk. Leſt, however, this ſhould diſcourage others from proſecuting this object, it is neceſſary to be more explicit.

Difficulties, and ſuch indeed as are conſiderable, muſt neceſſarily attend moſt undertakings which have been hitherto unattempted; but the diſappointments I ſuſtained, though more numerous than generally fall to the ſhare of a perſon under ſuch circumſtances, and more aggravated, did not all ariſe out of the undertaking itſelf, but from cauſes, ſome of which may be eaſily guarded againſt in future, while others may never again occur.

Two years have paſſed in producing what, I flatter myſelf, the ſociety will conſider deſerving their premium, particularly if I am enabled to render the operation much more ſimple than may at firſt ſight be ſuppoſed.

The claimant, I obſerve, is required to ſubmit to the ſociety his particular method of cultivating the poppies. As the mode adopted in the preſent inſtance aroſe rather from neceſſity than choice, I muſt go back as far as the autumn of 1797, to ſhow how it happened.

Five acres of ground and upwards, ſituate in the pariſh of Enfield, in the county of Middleſex, I appropriated to this experiment, at the period

abovementioned; which, being ploughed ſeveral times previous to the following March, were then ſown broad-caſt; and the weather proving favourable, the ſeed ſoon vegetated, and appearances were very promiſing. From the neglected ſtate of the land, however, to which I was unfortunately a ſtranger, ſuch a profuſion of weeds ſprang up among them, that after many fruitleſs efforts at recovery, I was under the mortifying neceſſity of ploughing them all up together. This circumſtance not taking place till the latter end of April, the ſeaſon for ſowing was elapſed; and as to cropping my field with oats or barley, a meaſure very ſtrongly recommended to me, I conſidered it as a deviation from my original purpoſe, and therefore, without paying any attention to it, gave the field a ſummer-fallowing, conceiving the poppies might be ſown with equal and perhaps greater advantage in autumn.

Finding that the broad-caſt method of ſowing precluded the poſſibility of hoeing where the land is much infeſted with weeds, I now adopted a different mode, and drilled in the ſeed with a very ſimple yet efficient machine, which I purchaſed of Mr. Macdougal, of Oxford-ſtreet: but, as the weather began to be very ſevere ſo early as November, and continued ſo with few intermiſſions, the ſucceeding March found me very little forwarder. Yet ſtill I perſevered, and once more reſolved to drill the whole five acres: they came up extremely well, and, as I expected, accompanied with innumerable weeds; but theſe by well-timed application were eradicated, though not without conſiderable difficulty.

I now thought myſelf ſecure; for nothing could aſſume a better appearance, till the beginning of May. Alas! I could not foreſee the cold and remarkably dry weather that enſued, and prevailed, I believe, for ſix weeks ſucceſſively. Hence the growth of ſome became ſtunted, and others were entirely deſtroyed; but happily ſome warm refreſhing ſhowers fell juſt time enough to reſcue the remainder.

From theſe I have procured upward of twenty-one pounds of opium, five of which, in compliance with the ſociety's requiſition, I have ſent for their inſpection and examination.

At one time I began to deſpair of even procuring this, comparatively ſpeaking, ſmall quantity, though it is not a fifth part of what I ought to have had, owing to the extraordinary rains and winds which we experienced through the whole of the ſummer months.

This recital, as I have before obſerved, ought on no account to intimidate others from a co-operation; for it is obvious, that the former inconveniencies originated in my own ignorance, while the latter depended upon the cauſes that in all probability may never happen again.

Mr. Ball, in a letter publiſhed in one of the volumes of the Society's Tranſactions *, advances an opinion which I conſider as very fallacious, reſpecting the quality of land adapted to the growth of poppies. He ſeems to be very little concerned about this point, and hints the probability of their being cultivated almoſt every where. I well know that poppies, like many other vegetables, will grow in ſoils of any deſcription; but of this I am fully aſſured, that, like the reſt, they have their particular and favourite ſoil, viz. a ſandy loam, and that the better this is, the more advantages will accrue to the cultivator. For it ſhould be conſidered, that, in bad as well as good ground, the ſame expences of cultivation, ſcarification, and collecting, will be incurred, for perhaps a fourth ſhare of the produce.

There is alſo another error in the ſame communication, which, having a tendency to miſlead, ought to be

* See our Magazine for September 1797, page 168.

pointed out. He tells us, to uſe his own words, 'That, by a calculation he has made, ſuppoſing one poppy growing in one ſquare foot of earth, and producing only one grain of opium, more than fifty pounds (I ſuppoſe he means, of courſe, apothecaries weight) will be collected from off one ſtatute acre of land.' Now, as there are no more than 43,560 ſquare feet in an acre, and allowing one grain for each, the produce can be no more than ninety ounces and ſix drachms. This calculation appears to me to be as much in the extreme one way, as that of Mr. Ball is in the other. The medium is moſt probably neareſt the truth; but upon this point I cannot at preſent ſpeak with any degree of preciſion on account of the ſcattered ſituation of my crop, and the extraordinary intemperance of the laſt ſeaſon. Judging, however, from the number of heads we perceived, and comparing them with the total quantity, they ſeem to have yielded three-fourths of a grain each, upon an average, large and ſmall.

I ſhall now lay before the ſociety ſome general remarks on the cultivation of poppies, and then conclude with ſubmitting a few hints and directions reſpecting the preparation of opium.

Having a tap-root, their ſize will conſequently be proportionate to the depth of earth they are enabled to penetrate. Hence the neceſſity of land that will admit of deep ploughing. The fineneſs of the ſurface too is very eſſential. As the ſeed is ſo ſmall, and the plants, on their firſt coming up, ſo exceedingly tender, the buſh-harrow ſhould always be uſed after thoſe which are commonly employed. By this means a greater number are likely to vegetate, and their roots being better protected are leſs liable to injury.

Poppies (and when I uſe this name, I mean that particular kind before ſpecified) may be cultivated both by the drill and broad-caſt mode of huſbandry; at the ſame time it muſt be remembered, that the land for each requires a different diſpoſition. In the former this is not ſo material, the ſowing-machine regulating the diſtances of the rows according to the will of the operator; theſe ought to be nine inches or a foot aſunder, and in beds containing four rows, allowing a foot and a half between each. But, with reſpect to the latter, this point muſt be ſtrictly attended to: the ridges ſhould never exceed four feet in breadth; ſo that the furrows will anſwer the double purpoſe of preſerving the land throughout the winter, and, in the ſeaſon for collecting the opium, ſerve as paths for the workmen.

Beſide two chances of a crop, I am decidedly in favour of autumnal ſowing; and the firſt week in September ſeems to be the moſt favourable period for this purpoſe. If the weather continues open, they will make ſuch a progreſs as to be capable of reſiſting the ſeverity of an inclement winter, without on the other hand being too forward; a circumſtance highly dangerous, as the firſt ſevere froſt is inevitably deſtructive.

On this account, whether by the drill or otherwiſe, a large proportion of ſeed ſhould be ſown at this ſeaſon, for the plants will defend each other; and as all the plants will not be equally forward, ſo let the winter prove as it may, provided the ſeed has vegetated freely, there will be great probability of a good appearance in ſpring. If unfortunately, however, ſuch a winter as the laſt ſhould again occur, and the whole plantation fail, a circumſtance which has happened to myſelf, the ſpring ſowing ought not to be deferred longer than the firſt week in March.

I do not, without ſufficient reaſon, recommend that this operation ſhould be performed in autumn. The poppies are not only generally larger, but even, when this is not the caſe, I know from experience, that they will yield a much larger proportion of opium: for it ſeldom happens that a ſpring poppy will bleed, as we term

it, more than twice, while the others will bear ſcarifying till they are nearly ripe. This I imagine can only ariſe from the length of time the one has been in the ground in compariſon with the other. Indeed, the difference is ſo ſtriking, that if the preſent winter deſtroys my plants, I ſhall be almoſt tempted to diſpoſe of my ſpring-ſowing to other purpoſes. In drilling, the neceſſity of covering the ſeed by harrowing is ſuſpended by the operation of the machine; and, in the broad-caſt method, a ſhower of rain will have all the effect without further trouble or expence.

Excepting great additional care, turnip and poppy hoeing are ſimilar, and in every reſpect may be conducted in the ſame manner. I believe the turnips are rather benefited, they certainly are not injured by being ſhaken, and will recover from the effects of a wound; but if the poppies are accidentally touched, they will either exhauſt themſelves by bleeding, or dwindle ſo as to be of no value. But it is high time to proceed to the laſt point I propoſed to conſider, namely, the production and preparation of opium.

In ordinary ſeaſons, the heads or capſules of the autumnal poppies will be large enough for our purpoſe in the month of June; for at this time they will have attained about half their growth, or be equal in ſize to a ſmall tea-cup. I have invented a variety of inſtruments as ſcarificators; but as only two kinds were actually uſed, I am unwilling to trouble the ſociety with a deſcription of any other.

Seven, and ſometimes eight boys were employed from eight to twelve years of age, together with a man as a ſuperintendant. The children's book, which accompanies the inſtruments, contains only an account of ſix, as the eldeſt, being the ſon of my gardener, is included in another book. To the youngeſt I gave three-pence per day, and, if tractable and well diſpoſed, an additional penny for every additional year.

The ſteel inſtrument was uſed by the latter, and the others by the former. I have great reaſon to be ſatisfied with their conſtruction; for, notwithſtanding their ſimplicity, they proved themſelves fully equal to my purpoſe; and ſo conſiderable a trial has not ſuggeſted any other improvement, than that in the largeſt the two inner bars only ſhould be elaſtic; for the continual preſſure of the finger and thumb on the two outer ones, which is abſolutely neceſſary for the others to act, would be avoided, and conſequently much fatigue and inconvenience prevented.

It is of very little conſequence whether the firſt inciſions are made horizontally or vertically, with this inſtrument; for however luxuriantly the milk may flow, by making four at one time, it ſo divides the ſtream that ſeldom any eſcapes. With the ſmaller ones we moſt commonly made them horizontally, beginning as near the top of the head as poſſible, and for this reaſon—all the juices, if the firſt inciſion was made at the bottom, would be naturally attracted by the aperture, and render every other completely fruitleſs, beſide occaſioning the certain loſs of a conſiderable quantity, by falling on the ſurrounding leaves; whereas, on the other hand, a proportion of milk will exude from each, and the opium be equally diſtributed over the whole ſurface of the head.

No particular directions ſeem neceſſary for repeating this operation, any farther than that each time it ſhould be performed in a contrary direction, and continued till no more will exude, at intervals of four or five days or more, according to circumſtances: for, as the weather proves rainy or fair, they will be ſhorter or longer, the heads being ſooner repleniſhed in the one than the other.

Each of the children being provided with a tin cup, having one handle, ſo contrived as to fix itſelf to a girdle faſtened round his waiſt, with a com-

mon gardening knife they ſcraped off the opium that appeared upon the heads in a ſoft aſh-coloured ſubſtance. Dewy mornings are beſt calculated for this purpoſe, and it ſhould be diſcontinued ſo ſoon as the ſun has gained a ſufficient power to diſſipate it; for, if perſevered in throughout the day, ſome of the opium will recede into the interſtices, and more, in defiance of every endeavour, will remain upon the heads. The principal quantity exudes in the courſe of the night, and, uniting with the dew, it is taken off as readily and completely as with a ſponge.

Several regulations were adopted to excite, as much as poſſible, a ſpirit of emulation. The name of each boy was written upon his cup, ſo as to aſcertain, on their return from collecting, who had been the moſt active. And although, in conſequence of the unſettled ſtate of the weather, this part of our proceſs continued ſo long as from the 6th of July to the ſecond week in September incluſive, the good effects were felt to the laſt. And, as for the reaſon already mentioned, an hour in the morning became ſo invaluable, thoſe who appeared in the ground at five o'clock, at the moſt buſy period, became entitled to an additional penny to their daily pay. This meaſure ſucceeded at firſt only with a few; but the remainder, overcome by ſhame, at length attended equally well. In addition to this encouragement, I am under an engagement (in caſe I ſucceed with the ſociety) to ſuch whoſe behaviour has been uniformly good, to celebrate the circumſtance by a public dinner.

The interval from breakfaſt time to ſun-ſet, if the weather aſſumed a ſettled appearance, was occupied by ſcarifying. And here I again felt the good effects of ſtimulating meaſures: certain places were allotted to particular children, according to their ability, ſo as to diſcover who ſcarified the moſt and the beſt; the ſuperintendant occaſionally following all of them, to obſerve whether any work was left unfiniſhed, and, if there were any, to complete it. If, in our progreſs, any one proved refractory, which happened in more inſtances than one, rather than have recourſe to ſeverity, and for the ſake of example, he was immediately diſcharged. I had numerous applications, and the firſt on the liſt always had the preference as his ſucceſſor.

Upon the whole, conſidering it was the firſt attempt of the kind, every thing proceeded very regularly; and had the ſummer been propitious, notwithſtanding my former diſappointments, I ſhould have had great cauſe for ſatisfaction. The largeſt quantity that my man, ſeven children, and myſelf, were able to procure in one morning, from five to nine o'clock, was one pound and a half: this happened when the dew was remarkably great, and ſucceeded one of the warmeſt days in the ſummer.

From the experience I have had, the precarioufneſs of our climate appears to me the only obſtacle to the production of opium in this kingdom. It may be ſaid that the ſame inconvenience attends every other agricultural purſuit; and that hay, and a variety of productions, particularly hops, are much prejudiced from the ſame cauſe. I allow that they are ſo; but the evil produced by a ſudden alteration in this caſe is irreparable; for, ſhould it happen after a fine ſcarifying day, we do not only loſe the labour of that day, but all its produce. It becomes obviouſly neceſſary, therefore, to be particularly circumſpect; and this is the only remedy we are able to procure. The poppies will receive no damage from remaining entire; while, on the other hand, impatience may be injurious, if not deſtructive.

As my notes furniſh me with no further particulars, I have very little more to add. The opium, when firſt collected, from its union with the dew, is much too ſoft to be ſo formed as the ſociety will receive it.

To reduce it to a proper conſiſt-

ence, taking nature for our guide, it ſhould be thinly ſpread in ſhallow diſhes, and expoſed, under glaſſes, to the rays of the ſun. My opinion is, that Turkey opium ſuffers conſiderably from the operation of fire; certain it is, that, with reſpect to its effluvia, it undergoes a complete alteration. I have covered it with its own leaves, thinking this a very convenient mode of package, and conceiving it to be important, in every new undertaking, by ſtudying appearances, to yield to the general prejudices which naturally prevail in favour of the article to which we have been accuſtomed.

The following teſtimony of the quality of the opium is extracted from a letter from Dr. Woodville to Mr. Jones.

I have examined the opium collected by you from the capſules of the white poppy; and I have no doubt, from its taſte, ſmell, colour, and purity, but that it is more powerful and efficacious than the beſt foreign opium imported into this country.

The late Dr. Alſton, when profeſſor of Botany and the Materia Medica in the univerſity of Edinburgh, informed the public more than ſixty years ago, that the milky juice, drawn by him from the heads of the white poppy, ſoon acquired the conſiſtence of opium, when its taſte, ſmell, faculties, &c. were the ſame as thoſe of that drug.

In the year 1791, I convinced myſelf of the truth of his aſſertion, by repeating his experiments, which I noticed the following year in my Medical Botany. Soon after this time I appropriated a part of the garden at the Smallpox-hoſpital for the growth of the Papaver Somniferum, from the green capſules of which were collected between two and three ounces of opium, which was found to be more efficacious than that of the exotic, as appeared upon trials of it made by ſeveral of my medical friends. But the great trouble and length of time required for the collection of the juice induced me at that time to think, that the manufacture of this valuable medicine in England did not hold forth any proſpect of commercial advantage. However, ſince I have ſeen the great quantity of it collected under your direction, I ſincerely hope that the above opinion will prove to be unfounded, and congratulate you on your ſucceſs.

Other letters accompany this account from Dr. Pearſon, Mr. John Horner, and Mr. G. E. Lawrence, which prove the quality to be equal to the beſt foreign opium.

The committee of chymiſtry, to whoſe examination the Engliſh opium, prepared by Mr. Jones, was referred by the ſociety, ordered ſamples of the opium to be left with ſeveral eminent chymiſts for their analyſis and judgement; and from the general reſult of their experiments it appears, that Mr. Jones' Engliſh opium is equal in quality to fine foreign opium; and the certainty of its growth in this country, preparation, and efficacy, fairly eſtabliſhed.

A premium of fifty guineas was adjudged to Mr. Jones for this communication.

THE JE NE SCAI QUOI.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

ALMOST a century has paſt ſince a plan was laid before the public, for an univerſal ſtandard of the Engliſh tongue. It was ſuppoſed by Dr. Swift, and many others, that ſuch a ſtandard was becoming abſolutely neceſſary, to reſcue our language both from the barbariſms of modern growth and affectations of faſhion, which for a time gives currency to words, that are abſurd or uſed in an abſurd ſenſe; and alſo to guard our language, as it has

ever been our ſtudy to guard our country, againſt the invaſions and incurſions of the French and other countries on the continent. In this great project, however, I do not find that any progreſs has ever been made. Writers and ſpeakers, even of the firſt eminence, continue to coin new words and phraſes, as they think beſt ſuits their purpoſe, or rather, which I take to be the true cauſe, to give an air of novelty and ſingularity to their ſentiments.

It is not, however, the uſe of new-coined Engliſh words, or of old words in new ſenſes that I principally mean to complain of in this letter, although on ſome other occaſion I may, perhaps, make that the ſpecific ſubject of a communication. What I chiefly find fault with, is our borrowing certain phraſes from the French and other languages, which by frequent repetition and vulgar or common uſe, are either applied in every poſſible meaning, in ſome ſecret meaning, known only to the perſon uſing them, or, what perhaps is more common, in no meaning at all.

Of theſe I think the *Je ne ſçai quoi* is the moſt preeminent. Nothing can be plainer than the meaning of theſe words rendered literally, *I know not what*; and why *I know not what* ſhould not be as proper as *Je ne ſçai quoi*, I cannot otherwiſe account for, except that the one is Engliſh, and more eaſily underſtood than the other, which is French, and may, when pronounced with a ſignificant air, give a fine lady or gentleman an opportunity of appearing a little wiſer than they really are, or perhaps is needful.

Indeed a perſon ignorant of this *Je ne ſçai quoi*, and I believe a great many who uſe it may come under that deſcription, muſt conceive it to be ſome very formidable perſonage, or ſome very bad quality or accompaniment to a man's character. A young lady of my acquaintance, lately broke off a very advantageous match in conſequence of it. The young gentleman who paid his addreſſes to her was unexceptionable in perſon, character and fortune, of which laſt, by the bye, ſhe had nothing to boaſt. No objection could be made by her; the friends and parents, on both ſides, which is no very common caſe, were unanimous for the match, but the lady would not conſent, becauſe, as ſhe ſaid, there was a *Je ne ſçai quoi* about him, which ſhe could not like. Every means was uſed to procure an explanation of this *Je ne ſçai quoi*, but in vain. She had no objection to him; he was handſome, ſenſible, well-bred, and of an excellent character, and his fortune genteel and unembarraſſed; *but* there was a *Je ne ſçai quoi* about him—and this was all the explanation that could be obtained, and which amounted only to a repetition of the ſame words, with as much meaning as at firſt. Some were of opinion the *Je ne ſçai quoi* muſt be ſomething ſhe had diſcovered, not uſually viſible; and it is certain no one elſe could ſee it. Others were of opinion that *Je ne ſçai quoi* was French for another ſweetheart, but this ſhe always poſitively denied; and I only leave you to judge, Mr. Editor, how very unbecoming it is in young ladies to make uſe of words which they are afraid to explain. I do not wiſh to be cenſorious, but I cannot help ſaying it is not very decent.

But if in the above caſe, there is a viſible impropriety bordering on indecency, what ſhall we think of an acquaintance of mine, a man of good fortune, who married a lady, contrary to the wiſhes of all his relations, and what is of equal importance, of his *beſt* friends, who had neither beauty, fortune, manners, accompliſhments, family, nor (I am ſorry to add) even character to recommend her. His excuſe was, that all this might be true: ſhe might have all theſe defects, but there was a *Je ne ſçai quoi* about her, which he could not but like. Here, too, all explanation was denied, and to this day, the friends of the party, although reconciled, in decent civility, to the match, have never

been able to diſcover where reſides this wonderful charm called *Je ne ſçai quoi*.

I might give many other inſtances of the human *Je ne ſçai quoi*, as in the choice of friends and companions, whether for the bottle, for a journey, for the chace, for a game of cards, or any other ſocial purpoſe. One is as ſurely choſen for a certain *Je ne ſçai quoi* about him, as another is rejected for the want of it. But even inanimate objects are not without their *Je ne ſçai quoi*. It coſt me above five hundred pounds in alterations, while I was building my houſe, becauſe one ſenſible and judicious friend or another diſcovered a *Je ne ſçai quoi* in this room, or the want of a *Je ne ſçai quoi* in the other, and the carpenters went immediately to work 'with axes and hammers,' to procure this *Je ne ſçai quoi*, although they could neither underſtand the words, nor even pronounce them.

In matters of criticiſm too, we are infeſted with this unintelligible principle, this *unknown quantity* as the mathematicians ſay, this certain ſomething or nothing, which cannot be felt, ſeen, or underſtood. Not only our plays, but ſome of the beſt of our actors and actreſſes have a *Je ne ſçai quoi* which, we are told, is irreſiſtible; and others of them would be Garricks, and Cibbers, if they only had a certain *Je ne ſcai quoi*. Hence a number of popular *likes* and *diſlikes*, which may be nothing to the public at large, but are of ſome conſequence to the comedian, whoſe ſalary and benefit depend upon them, and who will not be ſatisfied to be told with Dr. Fell:

I do not like thee, Dr. Fell,
The reaſon why I cannot tell,
But I do not like thee, Dr. Fell.

Our pictures, our buildings, our palaces, our parks, or views and proſpects in the country, are all ſubjected to the inviſible and incomprehenſible power of the *Je ne ſcai quoi*, and no man thinks himſelf under any obligation to be explicit on the ſubject.

I hope, ſir, you will agree with me that this is a great hardſhip, and at a time when taſte and all its principles are ſo well underſtood and defined, I humbly propoſe that the uſe of the *Je ne ſcai quoi* be accounted an infallible mark of ignorance; and as in criminal caſes, a perſon who refuſes to plead ſhall be deemed guilty, ſo he who refuſes to reduce his *Je ne ſcai quoi* to plain Engliſh, ſhall be conſidered as having no right or title either to applaud or reject. I will allow a man to find a *Je ne ſcai quoi* in his breakfaſt or his dinner, or even in his bottle or his horſe, but when the character and property of other perſons are at ſtake, no *Je ne ſcai quoi* ought to be admitted unleſs accompanied with a tranſlation, and that tranſlation containing ſomething like ſound ſenſe and argument—I humbly propoſe theſe things for the conſideration of your readers. I am, ſir, &c.

OLD ENGLISH.

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceaſed in* 1800*.

Dr. NEWCOMBE.

WE regret that ſo few particulars have been communicated to the public, of a character ſo valuable as the late William Newcombe, D. D. archbiſhop of Armagh, and primate of all Ireland, and that we can in this brief memoir, give little more than a catalogue of his writings.

He was appointed to the ſee of Dromore, 1766, and previouſly to that promotion, we are told, he was private tutor to the hon. Charles Fox. He was tranſlated, under lord Harcourt's adminiſtration, to Oſſory, 1775; to Waterford, 1779; and thence, by earl Fitzwilliam, to the primacy, on the death of Dr. Robinſon, lord Rokeby, 1795. His grace is well known to the friends of ſacred criticiſm by his learned and well directed labours. The firſt of theſe was,

* See our Magazine for July 1800, page 31.

'An Harmony of the Goſpels; in which the Engliſh Text is diſpoſed after Le Clerc's general Manner, with ſuch various Readings at the Foot of the Page as have received Weſtein's Sanction in his folio Edition of the Greek Teſtament. Obſervations are ſubjoined, tending to ſettle the Time and Place of the ſeveral Tranſactions, to eſtabliſh the Series of Facts, and to reconcile ſeeming Inconſiſtencies,' 1778, folio.

Dr. Prieſtley publiſhed a Greek Harmony, 1777; in which he maintains that our Lord's miniſtry did not laſt above one year; the biſhop, reckoning by four paſſovers, makes its duration three years and a half. Soon after his Harmony appeared, Dr. Prieſtley publiſhed one in Engliſh, prefixing a letter to the biſhop, maintaining his aſſertion. In anſwer, the biſhop publiſhed 'The Duration of our Lord's Miniſtry particularly conſidered, in Reply to a Letter from Dr. Prieſtley, on that Subject, prefixed to his Engliſh Harmony of the Evangeliſts,' 1780, 12mo. The doctor next year republiſhed his former letter, with the addition of a ſecond, to which the biſhop replied with his uſual moderation the ſame year. In 1782, he publiſhed, 'Obſervations on our Lord's Conduct as a Divine Inſtructor, and on the Excellence of his Moral Character,' 4to; the moſt complete work in its kind that has appeared; and an improved edition of it was publiſhed in 1795, 8vo. 'An Attempt toward an improved Verſion, a metrical Arrangement, and an Explanation, of the Twelve Minor Prophets,' 1785, 4to; with a view to recommend and facilitate an improved Engliſh tranſlation of the Septuagint. It is to be regretted this excellent work is in a manner out of print.

This was followed by 'An Attempt toward an improved Verſion of Ezekiel,' 4to: 'A Review of the chief Difficulties in the Goſpel Hiſtory reſpecting our Lord's Reſurrection,' a quarto pamphlet, with a view to retract ſome errors in the Greek Harmony. The next publication of this pious ſcholar was 'An Hiſtorical View of the Engliſh Biblical Tranſlations, the Expediency of reviſing by Authority our preſent Tranſlation, and the Means of executing ſuch a Reviſion,' Dublin, 1792. Since his death has been publiſhed, which he had printed before that event, in two volumes, 8vo, 'A Tranſlation of the New Teſtament,' with notes. In all his writings, extreme candour and a zealous reſearch into truth appear to have been the moſt ſtriking characteriſtics.

This learned prelate died at his palace of Armagh, aged ſeventy-one, on the 11th of January, 1800; and on the 14th, his remains were depoſited in the New College Chapel, Dublin.

GEORGE STEEVENS, Eſq.
F. R. and A. S. S.

THE very celebrated commentator on Shakſpeare, born 1735, was the only ſon of George Steevens, eſq. of Stepney, many years an Eaſt India captain, and afterward a director of the Eaſt India company, who died in 1768. He was admitted of King's College, Cambridge, about 1751 or 1752. But he is beſt known as editor of Shakſpeare's plays, twenty of which he publiſhed, 1766, in 4 vols. 8vo. A year before the appearance of this edition, Dr. Johnſon had publiſhed an edition, with notes in 8 vol. 8vo. A coalition between theſe two editors having been negociated, another edition, known by the name of Johnſon and Steevens' edition, made its appearance in 10 vol. 8vo, 1773. It was reprinted by theſe gentlemen, in the ſame number of volumes, five years after, and again, 1785. A fourth edition of this work, with great additions and improvements, was publiſhed by Mr. Steevens, in 15 vol. 8vo, in 1793, which is the moſt beautiful and complete edition, extant of Shakſpeare's plays. The diligent editor has taken all poſſible pains to render his work, full, clear, and con-

venient; and, whoever conſiders the prolegomena and notes, joined to the elegance of the typographical execution, will be of opinion that our immortal bard is edited in a manner worthy his fame. But this talent at explaining and illuſtrating the difficulties and beauties of Shakſpeare was diſgraced by the worſt of foils, a ſeverity of ſatire, which too ſtrongly marked a malevolence of heart, from which his beſt friends cannot vindicate the editor.

He was, however, a valuable member of the literary world, and a bright ſtar in the conſtellation of editors of that century, in which the names of Pope, Theobald, Rowe, Warburton, Garrick, Johnſon, Capel, and Malone, are conſpicuous. Adorned with a verſatility of talents, he was eminent both by his pen and his pencil; with the one there was nothing he could not compoſe, and with the other nothing he could not imitate ſo cloſely, as to leave a doubt which was the original and which the copy. But his chief excellence lay in his critical knowledge of an author's text, and the beſt pattern of his great abilities is his edition of Shakſpeare, in which he has left every competitor far behind him; and even Johnſon, with his giant ſtrides, could not walk by his ſide.

Mr. Steevens was a man of the greateſt perſeverance in every thing he undertook; often conſtant, but not always conſiſtent, as he would ſometimes break off his longeſt habits without any oſtenſible reaſon, and ſometimes for a very whimſical reaſon. He never took a pinch of ſnuff after he loſt his box in St. Paul's church-yard, though it had been the cuſtom of his life. and he was much addicted to the practice, and in the habit of making his memorandums by bits of paper in his box.

He was rich in books and prints, which were all lately diſpoſed of by his heireſs. His ſet of Hogarth, which he bequeathed to the right hon. W. Wyndham, is ſuppoſed to be the moſt complete of any that ever was collected, and his commentary on the productions of that inimitable painter, which accompanies Mr. Nichols' 'Biographical Anecdotes,' would alone have ſtamped a laſting fame on his critical acumen.

Though Mr. Steevens is known rather as a commentator, than as an original writer, yet when the works which he illuſtrated, the learning, ſagacity, taſte, and general knowledge which he brought to the taſk, and the ſucceſs which crowned his labours, are conſidered, it would be an act of injuſtice to refuſe him a place among the firſt literary characters of the age. Mr. Steevens poſſeſſed that knowledge which qualified him, in a ſuperior degree, for the illuſtration of Shakſpeare; and without which the utmoſt critical acumen would have proved abortive. He had, in ſhort, ſtudied the age of Shakſpeare, and had employed his perſevering induſtry in becoming acquainted with the writings, manners, and laws of that period, as well as the provincial peculiarities, whether of language or cuſtom, which prevailed in different parts of the kingdom, but more particularly in thoſe where Shakſpeare paſſed the early years of his life. This ſtore of knowledge he was continually increaſing, by the acquiſition of the rare and obſolete publications of a former age, which he ſpared no expence to obtain; while his critical ſagacity and acute obſervation were employed inceſſantly in calling forth the hidden meanings of the great dramatic bard, from their covert; and conſequently enlarging the diſplay of his beauties.

That Mr. Steevens contented himſelf with being a commentator, aroſe probably from the habits of his life: and devotion to the name, which, with his own, will deſcend to the lateſt poſterity. It is probable that many of his jeux d'eſprit might be collected; there is a poem of his in the old Annual Regiſter, under the title of the Frantic Lover, which is reckoned ſuperior to any ſimilar production in the Engliſh language, although the language is certainly more than border-

ing on indecency. Mr. Steevens was a claſſical ſcholar of the firſt order. He was equally acquainted with the Belles Lettres of Europe. He had ſtudied hiſtory, ancient and modern, but particularly that of his own country. He poſſeſſed a very handſome fortune, which he managed with diſcretion, and was enabled by it to gratify his wiſhes, which he did without any regard to expence, in forming his diſtinguiſhed collections of claſſical learning, literary antiquity, and the arts connected with it.—He received the firſt part of his education at Kingſton upon Thames; from thence he went to Eton, and from that to Cambridge. He alſo accepted a commiſſion in the Eſſex militia on its firſt eſtabliſhment. The latter years of his life he chiefly paſſed at Hamſtead, where he died Jan. 22, 1800.

Rev. Mr. JONES, of Nayland.

As the life of Mr. Jones will probably ſoon be given to the public in an enlarged form, we ſhall, for the preſent, content ourſelves with an abridgement of the account, drawn up by an intimate friend of his, whoſe name, however, we know not that we are at liberty to mention on the preſent occaſion.

Mr. William Jones, was born at Lowick, in Northamptonſhire, on the 30th of July, in the year 1726. He was remarkable, from his childhood, for unwearied induſtry, and various reſearch. As ſoon as he was of a proper age, he was admitted a ſcholar at the Charterhouſe, where he made a rapid progreſs in Greek and Latin, and laid the foundation of that knowledge, which has ſince proved an ornament to the Chriſtian world. About the eighteenth year of his age, he left the ſchool and went to the Univerſity College, Oxford, on a Charterhouſe exhibition. Having taken the degree of bachelor of arts, in 1749, he was ordained a deacon by the biſhop of Peterborough, and in 1751, he was ordained a prieſt. On leaving the univerſity, his firſt ſituation was that of curate at Finedon, in Northamptonſhire. There he wrote, 'A full Anſwer to biſhop Clayton's Eſſay on Spirit,' which was publiſhed in 1753. In this tract, many curious and intereſting queſtions are diſcuſſed, and ſeveral articles in the religion and learning of heathen antiquity explained; particularly the Hermetic, Pythagorean, and Platonic Trinities.

In 1754, he married Eliſabeth, daughter of the Rev. Brook Bridges, and went to reſide at Wadenhoe, in Northamptonſhire, as curate to his brother-in-law, the Rev. B. Bridges, a gentleman of ſound learning, ſingular piety, and amiable manners. Here he drew up that work which gained him moſt notice and applauſe, 'The Catholic Doctrine of the Trinity,' which he had kept in his thoughts for ſome years, and to which he had a particular attention as often as the ſcriptures were before him. To the third edition, in 1767, was added 'A Letter to the common People in Anſwer to ſome popular Arguments againſt the Trinity.' The ſociety for promoting Chriſtian knowledge have ſince admitted it into their liſt of books.

Here, likewiſe, he engaged in a work he had much at heart, for which he was eminently qualified, as the event proved, and which ſome of his friends had at heart likewiſe, who ſubſcribed among them 300l *per ann.* for three years, to enable him to ſupply himſelf with an apparatus ſufficient for the purpoſe of making the experiments neceſſary to his compoſing a Treatiſe on Philoſophy. In 1762, he publiſhed 'An Eſſay on the Firſt Principles of Natural Philoſophy,' in 4to, the deſign of which was to demonſtrate the uſe of natural means or ſecond cauſes, in the economy of the material world from reaſon, experiments, and the teſtimony of antiquity; and in 1781, he publiſhed a larger work in quarto, under the title of 'Phyſiological Diſquiſitions, or Diſcourſes on the Natural Philoſophy of the Elements.' As it was ever his

ſtudy to make philoſophy the handmaid of religion, he has in this work embraced every opportunity of turning natural knowledge to the illuſtration of divine truth, and the advancement of virtue. When the firſt volume was publiſhed, the late earl of Bute was ſo ſatisfied with it, that he deſired the author not to be intimidated through fear of expence from purſuing his philoſophical ſtudies, but direct Mr. Adams, the mathematical inſtrument-maker, to ſupply him with ſuch inſtruments he might want for making experiments, and put them to his account; and he alſo handſomely offered him the uſe of any books he might have occaſion for.

In 1764, archbiſhop Secker preſented him, firſt to the vicarage of of Bethersden, in Kent, and ſoon after to the more valuable rectory of Pluckley, in the ſame county, as ſome reward for his able defence of Chriſtian orthodoxy. In 1766, he preached the Viſitation Sermon before archbiſhop Secker, at Aſhford, and, although it was not printed at that time, in 1769, the ſubſtance of it was printed in the form of 'A Letter to a young gentleman at Oxford, intended for Holy Orders,' &c. On the publication of *The Confeſſional*, a work which made more noiſe than it deſerved, the archbiſhop conſidered Mr. Jones as a proper perſon to write an anſwer to it; and accordingly he drew up ſome remarks on it; and added them afterward to a new edition of the 'Anſwer to an Eſſay on Spirit,' in 1770. In 1773, he collected together into a volume, diſquiſitions on ſome ſelect ſubjects of ſcripture, which had been before printed in ſeparate tracts, all in the higheſt degree inſtructing and edifying. In 1776, he publiſhed 'Reflections on the Growth of Heatheniſm among modern Chriſtians.' About this time he accepted the perpetual curacy of Nayland, in Suffolk, and went thither to reſide with his family. Soon after, he effected an exchange of Pluckley for Paſton, in Northamptonſhire, which he viſited annually; but he fixed his more conſtant reſidence at Nayland, for the remainder of his days.

The Phyſiological Diſquiſitions, already mentioned, having received their laſt reviſe, they were added to the public ſtock of philoſophical knowledge in 1781. Whatever prejudices might ſubſiſt againſt them at that time, it is to be ſuppoſed they ſoon died away; for the impreſſion has long ſince been ſold, and the book is now in great requeſt. A notion is entertained, by ſome perſons, that the elementary philoſophy naturally leads to atheiſm, and ſir Iſaac Newton himſelf is charged with giving countenance to materialiſm by his ether: but nothing can be farther from the truth, and it is ſurpriſing how ſuch a thought could ever enter into the head of any man.

The figurative language of Holy Scriptures having been always his favourite ſtudy; after revolving the ſubject many years in his mind, he drew up a courſe of lectures, which were delivered in the pariſh church of Nayland, in 1786. His 'Treatiſe on the Art of Muſic,' is reckoned to diſplay a profound knowledge of the ſubject, and his compoſitions, (a morning and evening cathedral ſervice, ten church pieces, for the organ, with four anthems in ſcore) are greatly admired, as of the old ſchool, in the true claſſical ſtile.—By the advice of his learned and judicious friend, biſhop Horne, then become his dioceſan, to whoſe opinion he always paid the greateſt deference, he put forth, in the year 1790, two volumes of ſermons, in which were included ſome capital diſcourſes on natural hiſtory, delivered on Mr. Fairchild's Foundation (the Royal Society appointing the preacher) at the church of St. Leonard, Shoreditch, ſeveral ſucceſſive years, on Tueſday, in Whitſun-week. At the preaching of the firſt of theſe ſermons, the audience was not large, but it increaſed annually, as the fame of the preacher was noiſed abroad, whoſe manner was no leſs animated and engaging, than

the ſubject was profound and important. Among his late publications may be alſo reckoned, 'The Scholar armed againſt the Errors of the Time,' in two volumes. In 1795, he publiſhed the Life of biſhop Horne, of which a ſecond and improved edition was called for in 1799.—In 1798, he was preſented by the archbiſhop of Canterbury, to the ſinecure rectory of Hollingbourn, in Kent; but this additional advantage he did not long enjoy, as he paid the debt of nature, on the 6th of February, 1800.

In the above ſketch, his leſſer, but many of them valuable tracts, are omitted. There is, however, a deſign on foot for collecting the whole into an uniform edition.

[To be continued.]

PRESENT STATE OF THE MAMLUKS.

Accounts of the Egyptian Mamelucks, or Mamalucks, *have been frequently publiſhed in Hiſtories of* Egypt, *but the Expedition of the* French, *and the Conteſt which is about to ariſe in that Quarter, reſpecting the Poſſeſſion of* Egypt, *renders it Neceſſary that we ſhould obtain more accurate Ideas of the Mamluks, and the following Detail, from the lateſt Authority, may be depended on. Indeed, from want of a* Statiſtical *Account of* Egypt, *Errors have lately crept in, not only to our Reaſonings upon the Subject, but even into ſome of the official Information reſpecting the Poſture of Affairs.*

THE ſpelling of the name is various, Mammalukes, Mamalucs, Mameloucs, or Mamluks; but this is a matter, perhaps, of little importance, and we ſhall, for convenience, adopt the ſhorteſt, *Mamluks*.

They were firſt introduced into Egypt by Saladine, who, when he had it in contemplation to beſiege Jeruſalem, very naturally endeavoured to collect the moſt forcible means to accompliſh ſo deſirable an end; and, in conſequence, obſerving that the ancient inhabitants of Egypt were, from their effeminate mode of education, and the quiet and tranquil habits of their lives, much fitter for thoſe occupations in which they delighted, namely, the arts, merchandize, and mechanics, than military tactics and military toil, he reſolved, as little as poſſible, to employ or depend upon them.

This reſolution ſtimulating him to procure a hardier race of ſoldiers, he, therefore, commiſſioned agents to treat with the Circaſſians, by the lake of Meotis, near Taurica Cherſoneſus, whence, about the year 1176, they purchaſed more than a thouſand ſlaves. Men inured to hardſhip, matured in the lap of toil and danger, and bred from their infancy to war, which was to them rather an inſtinct than a ſcience, as the continual incurſions of the Tartars rendered ſelf-defence, in their ſituation, abſolutely neceſſary.

Theſe ſlaves Saladine trained to military diſcipline, and, at the ſame time that he made them renounce Chriſtianity, had them inſtructed in the Mahometan religion; and although he prohibited them from marrying, he allowed them an unbounded licence with reſpect to deſultory gallantry. What progreſs they made in the doctrines of the Alcoran, whether the tenets of that ſacred volume effectually eradicated all their firſt principles, is uncertain; but it is certain, that in time they became excellent ſoldiers, and that the military glory of Saladine, which was feebly ſupported by the native Egyptians, expanded in the hands of the Mamluks, who extended their conqueſts on every ſide, until pervading the Holy Land, they entered in the plain of Aſkelon.

Theſe Mamluks, who were continually adding to their numbers, in proceſs of time became naturalized to

the country; and, as it has been obſerved, they excelled the Egyptians in ſtrength of body, in military diſcipline, in their ſkill in horſemanſhip, and in courage; ſo they, by the liberality of their generals, and the plunder of cities and princes, alſo excelled them in wealth. In fact, their mode of education fitted them for the moſt dangerous and adventurous enterprizes, and, from being the ſlaves, enabled them in time to become the maſters of even the Turks, by whom they had originally been purchaſed.

After the death of Saladine, who left the kingdom to his brother, they roſe to ſtill greater importance than they had acquired during his reign, and continued, if not abſolutely to govern, yet, like the Roman ſoldiers in the time of Pertinax, Alexander, and Valerian, to awe the monarch.

This influence continued through the reigns of five ſucceſſive caliphs, until that of Melachſala, the laſt of the poſterity of Saladine, who, being at war with the Arriſtians, and at the ſame time wiſhing to repreſs the enormous power of the Mamluks, purchaſed ſlaves from all the ſurrounding countries, whom, in imitation of his anceſtor, he armed and appointed to defend his dominions. The event of this meaſure was exactly what might have been expected. Melachſala was, in conſequence of a conſpiracy beteen his new and his old ſoldiers, ſlain; and Turquemenus, the leader of this mutiny and rebellion, hailed by the title of great ſultan of Egypt. With him began the government of the Mamluks, about the year 1250; which had the next year gathered ſuch ſtrength, that it was thought neceſſary, in order to repreſs thoſe exuberances to which new-formed governments are liable, and bring it nearer to a ſyſtem, to cauſe the following articles, in the form of a charter, to be ſubſcribed by their principal leaders, as an act of the whole people. 'Firſt, That the ſultan ſhould be choſen from the body of Mamluks: 2dly, That none ſhould be admitted into the order that were either Jews or Turks, but only Chriſtian captives: 3dly, That the native Egyptians ſhould not be permitted to uſe, or have, any weapons, except the inſtruments of agriculture.'

Turquemenus, as is frequently the practice with thoſe that experience a ſudden elevation, endeavoured to kick down the ladder by which he had been raiſed; or, in other words, his carriage was ſo haughty and diſdainful to his former companions, that he was by them, or rather by one of them, named Clotho, ſuddenly ſlain; for which the murderer was rewarded with his ſceptre. After him ſucceeded a long race of princes, many of whom were as eminent for their talents as for their valour; among whom, the name of Caitbeius has been tranſmitted to us, as that of the greateſt ſtateſman and general of his age, but, as every one who conſiders the materials of which the government was compoſed, muſt rather wonder that it exiſted ſo long, than that it ſhould, through almoſt the whole courſe of its operation, be expoſed to all the various evils and diſtreſſes ariſing from a long train of ſedition and tumults, ſo he muſt lament that it ſhould expire in the reign of one of their wiſeſt and beſt monarchs; yet it is ſome conſolation to reflect, that Campſon, the laſt ſultan of the Mamluks, was *not* murdered by his ſubjects, but having for many years governed the kingdoms of Egypt, Indea, and Syria, in a manner that has excited the praiſe of the hiſtoric pen, he, oppreſſed with age and diſeaſe, and encumbered with his armour, ſunk upon the field of battle, and, with his laſt breath, yielded the victory to the fortunate Selim.

With this monarch, who expired January 20, 1516, ended the government of the Mamluks, after it had continued two hundred and ſeventy-ſix years; for although an attempt was made by Tomumby to get himſelf declared ſultan, in which attempt he actually ſucceeded ſo far as to be inveſted with the title, yet he was ſoon after defeated by the victorious

Selim. He was then forſaken by his troops, taken and executed; while the Mamluks broken and diſperſed, it was the policy of Selim to rally, and, by offers too tempting to be by them refuſed, engage in his ſervice. The uſe of theſe ſoldiers ſoon became ſufficiently apparent to the Turkiſh emperors, to ſtimulate them to augment their number, enlarge their ſphere of action, and combine them cloſer to the ſtate, by the allowance of ſtill greater privileges and advantages than they had before enjoyed.

The beys were ordained to be choſen from among them; and the paſha, or chief governor for the porte, was to ſhare his power with thoſe beys, and even to continue in office no longer than ſhould be agreeable to their collective will. At firſt the power of the paſha was very extenſive; but by the intrigues and ambition of the beys, it has been reduced almoſt to a cypher. It was rather of a civil than military nature. He was always preſident of the divan, which was held in the caſtle where he reſided. But that council now commonly meets in the palace of one of the chief beys, except when a firman, or mandate is received from Conſtantinople, when the beys are ſummoned to the caſtle, to hear the commands of the porte. The few who attend, as ſoon as the reading is finiſhed, anſwer, as is uſual, 'We have heard, and we obey.' On leaving the caſtle, their general voice is, 'We have heard, and ſhall diſobey!'

In the year 1791, Salah Aga, a ſlave of Murad Bey, was deputed from the government of Egypt to negociate their peace with the porte. He carried preſents of horſes, rich ſtuffs, &c. A ſpontaneous tribute, which the porte was in no condition to enforce, implied obligation on the part of the latter. He was well received, and afterward was appointed *waquil es ſultan*, agent, or attorney, to the ſultan in Cairo It is probable, this office was given to incline him to ſecond the efforts of the court in diſuniting the beys; but it was ineffectual. Theſe had formerly experienced the evils of diviſion, and now were united by common intereſt, grown rich, and well provided with ſlaves; ſo that no tribute has ſince that time found its way to Conſtantinople.

The Mamluks remain, as they have ever been, military ſlaves, imported from Georgia, Circaſſia, and Mingrelia. A few have been priſoners, taken from the Auſtrians and Ruſſians, who have exchanged their religion for an eſtabliſhment. The beys give general orders to their agents at Conſtantinople, to purchaſe a certain number every year; and many are brought to Egypt by private merchants on ſpeculation. When the ſupply proves inſufficient, or many have been expended, black ſlaves from the interior of Africa are ſubſtituted, and, if found docile, are armed and accoutred like the reſt.

Particular attention is paid to the education of theſe favoured ſlaves. They are inſtructed in every exerciſe of agility or ſtrength, and are, in general, diſtinguiſhed by the grace and beauty of their perſons. The gratitude of the diſciples is equal to the favour of their maſters, whom they never quit in the hour of danger. If they have a diſpoſition for learning, they are taught the uſe of letters, and ſome of them are excellent ſcribes; but the greater part neither can read nor write. A ſtriking example of which deficiency is obſervable in Murad Bey himſelf.

The inferior Mamluks conſtantly appear in the military dreſs, and are commonly armed with a pair of piſtols, a ſable, and a dagger. They wear a peculiar cap of a greeniſh hue, around which is wreathed a turban. The reſt of their dreſs reſembles that of other Mohamedan citizens, and is reſtricted to no particular colour; but another ſingularity is, their large drawers of thick Venetian cloth, of a crimſon colour, to which are attached their ſlippers of red leather. On horſeback they add to their arms a pair of large horſe piſtols, and the dubbers, or

battle-axe. In battle, many of them wear an open helmet, with the ancient ring armour of interwoven links of ſteel, worn under part of their dreſs, and thus concealed. Theſe are dear, ſometimes coſting about forty pounds of our money. Some of them are made at Conſtantinople, others in Perſia. Their horſes are of the fineſt Arabian breed, and often purchaſed at three or four purſes, 150l. or 200l. ſterling.

They have no pay, as they eat at a table in the houſe of their maſter, the bey, caſhef, or other officer. Any military officer may purchaſe a ſlave, who becomes, *ipſo facto*, a Mamluk. The name, from *mulek*, to poſſeſs, implies merely a perſon who is the property of another. After a proper education, the candidate thus conſtituted a Mamluk, receives a preſent of a horſe and arms from his maſter, together with a ſuit of clothes: which is renewed every year in the month Ramadan. The generoſity of their maſters, and rewards, or extortions from others, afford them ſupplies of money, either for avaric or debauchery. Some of them, admitted to peculiar favour by the beys, as *chaſnadars*, or purſe-bearers, &c. acquire great wealth. They are rather gay and thoughtleſs, than inſolent, fond of ſhow, and unprincipled in their means of acquiring it. They ſeldom marry till they acquire ſome office.

Though born of Chriſtian parents, they ſeem highly ſatisfied with their condition, which they have been known to refuſe to exchange for freedom. The majority are regarded by the Arabs as little ſtrict in the principles, or duties, of Mohamediſm. It is worthy of remark, that though the Mamluks, in general, be ſtrong and perſonable men, yet the few who marry very ſeldom have children. Of eighteen beys, with whoſe hiſtory the late traveller, Mr. Browne, was well acquainted, two only had any children living.

Hardy, capable of every fatigue, of undaunted courage, and eminent ſkill in horſemanſhip and the uſe of the ſabre, the Mamluks may be regarded as by far the beſt troops in the Eaſt. But in a regular battle, conducted by manœuvres, and large or rapid movements, they are equally inferior to European troops.

Being diſtinguiſhed by favouritiſm or merit, the Mamluk becomes a caſhef, and in time a bey. The chief cauſe of preference ariſes from political adherence to ſome powerful leader.

The government of Cairo and Egypt, in general, is veſted in twenty beys; each of whom is nominally choſen by the remaining twenty-three, but, in fact, appointed by one of the moſt powerful. The Yenk-tchery, Aga, and ſeveral other officers, are enumerated among the twenty-four beys. Beſides being governors of certain diſtricts of Egypt, ſeveral of the beys receive other dignities from the porte: ſuch are the *ſheeh el bellad*, or governor of the city; the *defterdar*, or accountant-general; the *emir el hadj*, or leader of the ſacred caravan; and the *emir es ſaid*, or governor of the Upper Egypt. Theſe two laſt offices are annual. Theſe offices have alſo revenues allotted them by the porte, ill defined, and liable to much abuſe.

Of the other beys, each appoints all officers and governors within his diſtrict, putting into it ſome ſlave of his own, who is compelled to render an account of the receipts, of which a great part paſſes to ſupport the grandeur of his maſter. An opulent bey may have from 600 to 1000 purſes annually; the revenue of Murad Bey more than doubles that ſum. The inferior beys may have 300 purſes, or 15,000l.

Every bey ſits in judgment on caſes of equity. Theſe perſonages are very obſervant of their reſpective juriſdictions; and no bey will impriſon a man liberated by another. Though ſometimes too impetuous, they nevertheleſs diſplay great acuteneſs and knowledge of character. This government, at leaſt, poſſeſſes every advantage of publicity, as every bey is a magiſtrate.

MANUFACTURE OF SHAGREEN.

[By Profeſſor PALLAS.]

[NO accurate account of that kind of grained leather called Chagreen, or Shagreen, has ever been publiſhed in Europe, previous to that of profeſſor Pallas, of which we are now enabled to lay an abridgement before our readers.]

All kinds of horſes or aſſes ſkin, which have been dreſſed in ſuch a manner as to appear grained, are, by the Tartars, called *ſauever*, by the Perſians, *ſegre*, and by the Turks, *ſagri*, from which the Europeans have made *ſhagreen*. The Tartars who reſide at Aſtracan, with a few of the Armenians of that city, are the only people in the Ruſſian empire acquainted with the art of making ſhagreen. Thoſe who follow this occupation not only gain conſiderable profit by the ſale of their production to the Tartars of Cuban, Aſtracan, and Caſan, who ornament with it their Turkey leather boots, ſlippers, and other articles made of leather, but they derive conſiderable advantage from the great ſale of horſes hides, which have undergone no other proceſs than that of being ſcraped clean, and of which ſeveral thouſands are annually exported, at the rate of from ſeventy-five to eighty-five roubles *per* hundred, to Perſia, where there is a ſcarcity of ſuch hides, and from which the greater part of the ſhagreen manufactured in that country is prepared. The hind part only of the hide, however, which is cut out in the form of a creſcent, about a Ruſſian ell and a half in length acroſs the loins, and a ſhort ell in breadth along the back, can properly be employed for ſhagreen. The remaining part, as it is proved by experience, is improper for that purpoſe, and is therefore rejected.

The preparation of the ſkins, after being cut into the above form, is as follows:—They are depoſited in a tub filled with pure water, and ſuffered to remain there for ſeveral days, till they are thoroughly ſoaked, and the hair has dropped off. They are then taken from the tub, one by one, extended on boards placed in an oblique direction againſt a wall, the corners of them, which reach beyond the edges of the board, being made faſt, and the hair with the epidermis is then ſcraped off with a blunt iron ſcraper called *urak*. The ſkins thus cleaned are again put in pure water to ſoak. When all the ſkins have undergone this part of the proceſs, they are taken from the water a ſecond time, ſpread out one after the other as before, and the fleſh ſide is ſcraped with the ſame kind of inſtrument. They are carefully cleaned alſo on the hair ſide, ſo that nothing remains but the pure fibrous tiſſue, which ſerves for making parchment, conſiſting of coats of white medullary fibres, and which has a reſemblance to a ſwine's bladder ſoftened in water.

After this preparation, the workmen take a certain kind of frames, called *palzi*, made of a ſtraight and ſemicircular piece of wood, having nearly the ſame form as the ſkins. On theſe the ſkins are extended in as ſmooth and even a manner as poſſible by means of cords; and during the operation of extending them, they are ſeveral times beſprinkled with water, that no part of them may be dry, and occaſion an unequal tenſion. After they have been all extended on the frames, they are again moiſtened, and carried into the houſe, where the frames are depoſited cloſe to each other on the floor, with the fleſh ſide of the ſkin next the ground. The upper ſide is then thickly beſtrewed with the black, exceedingly ſmooth, and hard ſeeds of a kind of gooſe foot (*chenopodium album* which the Tartars call *alabuta*, and which grows in abundance, to about the height of a man, near the gardens and farms on the ſouth ſide of the Volga; and that

they may make a ſtrong impreſſion on the ſkins, a piece of felt is ſpread over them, and the ſeeds are trod down with the feet, by which means they are deeply imprinted into the ſoft ſkins. The frames, without ſhaking the ſeeds, are then carried out into the open air, and placed in a reclining poſition againſt a wall to dry, the ſide covered with the ſeeds being next the wall, in order that it may be ſheltered from the ſun. In this ſtate the ſkins muſt be left ſeveral days to dry in the ſun, until no appearance of moiſture is obſerved in them, when they are fit to be taken from the frames. When the impreſſed ſeeds are beat off from the hair ſide, it appears full of indentations or inequalities, and has acquired that impreſſion which is to produce the grain of the ſhagreen, after the ſkins have been ſubjected to the laſt ſmoothing or ſcraping, and have been dipped in a ley, which will be mentioned hereafter, before they receive the dye.

The operation of ſmoothing is performed on an inclined bench or board, which is furniſhed with an iron hook, and is covered with thick felt of ſheep's wool, on which the dry ſkin may gently reſt. The ſkin is ſuſpended in the middle of the bench or board to its iron hook, by means of one of the holes made in the edge of the ſkin for extending it in its frame as beforementioned; and a cord, having at its extremity a ſtone or a weight, is attached to each end of the ſkin, to keep it in its poſition while under the hands of the workmen. It is then ſubjected to the operation of ſmoothing and ſcraping by means of two different inſtruments. The firſt uſed for this purpoſe, called by the Tartars *tokar*, is a piece of ſharp iron bent like a hook, with which the ſurface of the ſhagreen is pretty cloſely ſcraped to remove all the projecting inequalities. This operation, on account of the corneous hardneſs of the dry ſkin, is attended with ſome difficulty; and great caution is at the ſame time required that too much of the impreſſion of the *alabuta* ſeed be not deſtroyed, which might be the caſe if the iron were kept too ſharp. As the iron, however, is pretty blunt, which occaſions inequalities on the ſhagreen, this inconvenience muſt afterward be remedied by means of a ſharp ſcraping iron or *wrak*, by which the ſurface acquires a perfect uniformity, and only faint impreſſions of the *alabuta* ſeed then remain, and ſuch as the workman wiſhes. After all theſe operations, the ſhagreen is again put into water, partly to make it pliable, and partly to raiſe the grain. As the ſeeds occaſion indentations in the ſurface of the ſkin, the intermediate ſpaces, by the operations of ſmoothing and ſcraping, loſe ſome part of their projecting ſubſtance; but the points which have been depreſſed, and which have loſt none of their ſubſtance, now ſwell up above the ſcraped parts, and thus form the grain of the ſhagreen. To produce this effect, the ſkins are left to ſoak in water twenty-four hours; after which they are immerſed ſeveral times in a ſtrong warm ley, obtained by boiling, from a ſtrong alcaline earth, named *ſchora*, which is found in great abundance in the neighbourhood of Aſtracan. When the ſkins have been taken from this ley, they are piled up, while warm, on each other, and ſuffered to remain in that ſtate ſeveral hours; by which means they ſwell, and become ſoft. They are then left twenty-four hours in a moderately ſtrong pickle of common ſalt, which renders them exceedingly white and beautiful, and fit for receiving any colour. The colour moſt uſual for theſe ſkins is a ſea-green; but old experienced workmen can dye them blue, red, or black, and even make white ſhagreen.

For the green colour nothing is neceſſary but filings of copper and ſal ammoniac. Sal ammoniac is diſſolved in water till the water is completely ſaturated: and the ſhagreen ſkins, till moiſt, after being taken from the pickle, are waſhed over with the ſolution on the ungrained fleſh ſide,

and when well moiſtened a thick layer of copper filings is ſtrewed over them: the ſkins are then folded double, ſo the ſide covered with the filings is innermoſt. Each ſkin is then rolled up in a piece of felt; the rolls are all ranged together in proper order, and they are preſſed down in an uniform manner by ſome heavy bodies placed over them, under which they remain twenty-four hours. During that period, the ſolution of ſal ammoniac diſſolves a quantity of the cupreous particles, ſufficient to penetrate the ſkin and to give it a ſea-green colour. If the firſt application be not ſufficient, the proceſs is repeated in the ſame manner; after which the ſkins are ſpread out and dried.

For the blue dye, indigo is uſed. About two pounds of it, reduced to a fine powder, are put into a kettle; cold water is poured over it, and the mixture is ſtirred round till the colour begins to be diſſolved. Five pounds of pounded *alakar*, which is a kind of *barilla*, or crude *ſoda*, prepared by the Armenians and Calmnes, is then diſſolved in it, with two pounds of lime and a pound of pure honey, and the whole is kept ſeveral days in the ſun, and during that time frequently ſtirred round. The ſkins intended to be dyed blue muſt be moiſtened only in the nitrous ley *ſchora*, but not in the ſalt brine. When ſtill moiſt, they are folded up and ſewed together at the edge, the fleſh ſide being innermoſt, and the ſhagreened hair ſide outwards; after which they are dipped three times in the remains of an exhauſted kettle of the dye, the ſuperfluous dye being each time expreſſed; and after this proceſs they are dipped three times in the remains of an exhauſted kettle of the ſame dye, the ſuperfluous dye being each time expreſſed; and after this proceſs they are dipped in the freſh dye prepared as above, which muſt not be expreſſed. The ſkins are then hung up in the ſhade to dry; after which they are cleaned and paired at the edges.

For black ſhagreen, gall nuts and vitriol are employed in the following manner:—The ſkins, moiſt from the pickle, are thickly beſtrewed with fine pulverized gall nuts. They are then folded together, and laid over each other for twenty-four hours. A new ley, of bitter ſaline earth or *ſchora*, is in the mean time prepared, and poured hot into ſmall troughs. In this ley each ſkin is ſeveral times dipped; after which they are again beſtrewed with pounded gall-nuts, and placed in heaps for a certain period, that the galls may thoroughly penetrate them, and they are dried and beat, to free them from the duſt of the galls. When this is done, they are rubbed over, on the ſhagreen ſide, with melted ſheep's tallow, and expoſed a little in the ſun, that they may imbibe the greaſe. The ſhagreen-makers are accuſtomed alſo to roll up each ſkin ſeparately, and to preſs or ſqueeze it with their hands againſt ſome hard ſubſtance, in order to promote the abſorption of the tallow. The ſuperfluous particles are removed by means of a blunt wooden ſcraper; (*wrac*) when this proceſs is finiſhed, and the ſkins have lain ſome time, a ſufficient quantity of vitriol of iron is diſſolved in water, with which the chagreen is moiſtened on both ſides, and by this operation it acquires a beautiful black dye. It is then dreſſed at the edges, and in other places where there are any blemiſhes.

To obtain white ſhagreen, the ſkins muſt firſt be moiſtened on the ſhagreen ſide with a ſtrong ſolution of alum. When the ſkin has imbibed this liquor, it is daubed over on both ſides with a paſte made of flour, which is ſuffered to dry. The paſte is then waſhed off with alum water, and the ſkin is placed in the ſun till it is completely dry. As ſoon as it is dry, it is gently beſmeared with pure melted ſheep's tallow, which it is ſuffered to imbibe in the ſun; and to promote the effect, it is preſſed and worked with the hands. The ſkins are then faſtened in ſucceſſion to the before mentioned bench, where warm water is poured over them, and the ſuperfluous fat is ſcraped off with a

blunt wooden inſtrument. In the laſt operation the warm water is of great ſervice. In this manner ſhagreen perfectly white is obtained, and nothing remains but to pare the edges and dreſs it.

But this white ſhagreen is not intended ſo much for remaining in that ſtate, as for receiving a dark red dye; becauſe, by the above previous proceſs, the colour becomes much more perfect. The ſkins deſtined for a red colour muſt not be immerſed firſt in ley of bitter ſalt earth, *(ſchora)* and then in pickle, but after they have been whitened, muſt be left to ſoak in the pickle for twenty-four hours. The dye is prepared from cochineal, which the Tartars call *kirmitz*. About a pound of the dried herb *tſchagann*, which grows in great abundance in the neighbourhood of Aſtracan, and is a kind of ſoda plant or kali, is boiled a full hour in a kettle, containing about four common pailfuls of water; by which means the water acquires a greeniſh colour. The herb is then taken out, and about half a pound of pounded cochineal is put into the kettle, and the liquor is left to boil a full hour, care being taken to ſtir it that it may not run over. About fifteen or twenty drams of a ſubſtance which the dyers call *luter*, (*orchilla*) is added, and when the liquor has been boiled for ſome time longer, the kettle is removed from the fire. The ſkins taken from the pickle are then placed over each other in troughs, and the dye liquor is poured over them four different times, and rubbed into them with the hands, that the colour may be equally imbibed and diffuſed. The liquor each time is expreſſed; after which they are fit for being dried. Skins prepared in this manner are ſold at a much dearer rate than any of the other kinds.

THE BATHS OF LOICHE.

[From Beaumont's Travels through the Lepontine Alps.]

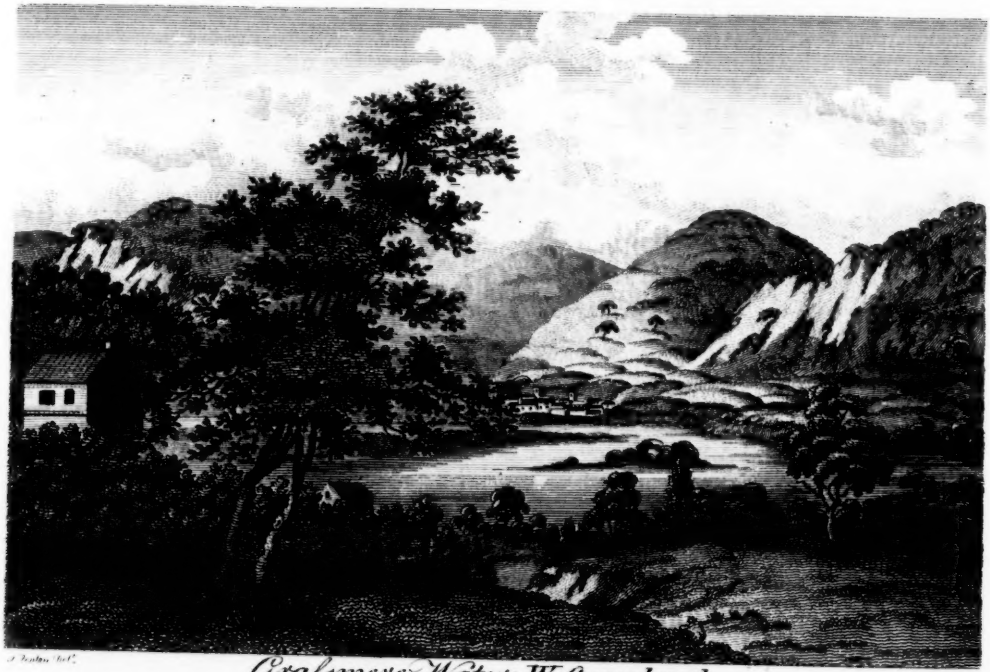
THE baths of Loiche, or Loncher-bed, as they are ſometimes called, are ſituate in a valley, rich in paſture, at the baſis of Mont Gemmi, though ſurrounded by lofty rocks, covered with permanent ſnow. This ſpot is furniſhed with a tolerable good inn, and ſeveral wooden houſes, moſt of which are for the accommodation of ſtrangers. Nearly in the centre of this little village is an extenſive baſin, which ſerves as a reſervoir to the drain belonging to the ſuperior ſprings, of which there are twelve, at about a mile and a half from the inn. But, what is ſingular, though theſe ſprings are placed at the foot of an immenſe rock, which ſerves as a ſupport to the great glacier of Gemmi, yet, contiguous to their ſource, the ſtate of their temperature raiſes the mercury in Fahrenheit's thermometer to one hundred and twenty degrees,—a circumſtance which, had I not, in the courſe of my travels, ſeen molten lava running down the ſides of Veſuvius when its ſummit was covered with ſnow, would doubtleſs have ſurpriſed me.

Theſe ſprings, which all together yield about five or ſix cubic inches of water, ſerve to fill four large baths, divided into four regular ſquares, capable of containing five-and-twenty or thirty perſons each. The water has a ſtrong ſulphureous ſmell, which evaporates or loſes itſelf if taken any diſtance. It is deemed efficacious for many complaints, as the ſpleen, hyſterics, ſcurvy, &c. and is accounted a great ſtrengthener of the ſtomach. But a moſt ſingular virtue which attends it, and which muſt not paſs unnoticed, is that of reſtoring life and colour to flowers and vegetables, let them be ever ſo withered or dead, when thrown into it; although, from the heat of the water, it might naturally be ſuppoſed to have a contrary effect; but ſo it is; and no otherwiſe

can I account for it, than from the particles of neutral and alkaline ſalts with which the water is impregnated. Cloſe to the baths begins the aſcent to Mont Gemmi, which is neither leſs curious nor wonderful than the former, being likewiſe cut in the main rock for the ſpace of ſeven or eight miles, in a continual zig-zag, and nearly every where covered by the rock itſelf. This aſtoniſhing undertaking was completed by order of the ſtates of Berne and the republic of Vallais, at the beginning of the preſent century; for, as this paſs, which is as ſtupendous as the Great St. Bernard, is much frequented by the mercantile people of the country, and thoſe who viſit the baths of Loiche, theſe ſtates found themſelves equally intereſted in opening this paſſage, though ſtill paſſable only on mules or on foot, owing to the frequent falling of ſome parts of the mountains that ſtand contiguous to the road; which circumſtance has prevented it being entirely finiſhed on the Swiſs ſide.

This tremendous mountain is as curious in its conſtruction as in the heterogeneity of its ſtrata. Its nucleus appears to be partly granite, and partly quartzoſe, micaceous rock; but, what ſeemed moſt remarkable, near its ſummit I obſerved calcareous ſtrata, of five feet thickneſs, in which were imbedded a vaſt quantity of foſſils, moſtly cochliti and anomiæ,—a very convincing proof of the extreme height of the ſea at the time it ſubmerged our continents, ſince thoſe ſame ſtrata are now ſeven thouſand feet above the preſent level of the ſea. At no great diſtance from the top of the mountain are alſo found ſulphur, vitriol, and vitriolic pyrites, beſide a mine of ſilver ore, which is not worked, though apparently very rich: there likewiſe ſtands an hoſpital, but ſmall; and a deep lake, the drain of which is unknown. From the higheſt part of the mountain, called Point Daubin, the proſpect is both ſublime and magnificent, for the eye wanders weſtward, on an extenſive glacier, that ſtretches in an eaſy aſcent for the ſpace of five miles; while, on the oppoſite ſide, the whole length of the valley of the Rhone is diſtinguiſhable, with the Great St. Bernard at its head, Mont Velan, and the reſt of the frozen chain which ſeparates the Vallais from Italy, forming a noble aſpect; whereas, eaſt and north, the view totally changes, and all is deſolate and melancholy; for nothing but immenſe fragments of rock, piled mountains high, one on the other, ſpread abroad, and ſtrongly evince the dreadful convulſions of nature which this mountain has doubtleſs experienced at ſome very diſtant period.

About two miles and a half from the baths of Loiche I gained the baſis of rocks on which ſtands the village of Albinen, where ladders are placed, from rock to rock, in the ſame manner as were originally near the baths. This village, which is ſituate in the midſt of an extenſive plain or baſin, nine hundred feet at leaſt above the valley of Loiche, is large and populous, the inhabitants being healthy and comfortable; and though there is no other way of acceſs to them than by the ladders above deſcribed, it is nevertheleſs much frequented; and, as a proof of what I advance, I ſhall here mention what I was witneſs to, and which may doubtleſs be depended on. At the moment I was preparing to aſcend, I obſerved, five hundred feet above me, a woman, perched as it were on one of the ladders, carrying a pail on her head, and two youths following. From the extreme diſtance they were at, they had a moſt ſingular appearance, and might have been taken for birds rather than human beings; but from their alacrity and manner of proceeding, had I not known by what means they were reaching the ſummit, I might eaſily have conjectured that they were aſcending a flight of ſteps.



Grasmere-Water, Westmorland.

REMARKS *on the* NATURAL HISTORY *and* SCENERY *of* LAKES: *With a* DESCRIPTION *of* GRASSMERE-WATER; *and a perſpective View of that beautiful Lake.*

A TASTE for viſiting the lakes of Cumberland and Weſtmoreland, has of late years been diffuſed among all ranks, and particularly cultivated by men of genius and obſervation. Thoſe who have a turn for landſcape painting, can perhaps no where in this country find ſuch rich, ample and various materials, the ſoft, the rude, the romantic and the ſublime. To thoſe who viſit the lakes for leſs important purpoſes, they preſent objects highly intereſting. Something opens itſelf at the turn of every mountain, and a ſucceſſion of ideas is ſupported by a perpetual change of objects, and a diſplay of ſcenes behind ſcenes, in endleſs perſpective.

The *contemplative* traveller, ſays one of the many authors who have lately deſcribed the lakes, will be charmed with the ſight of the ſweet retreats that he will obſerve in theſe enchanting regions of calm repoſe, and the *fanciful* may figuratively review the hurry and buſtle of buſy life (in all its gradations) in the variety of unſhaded rills that hang on the mountains ſides, the haſty brooks that warble through the dell, or the mighty torrents precipitating themſelves at once with thundering noiſe from tremendous rocky heights; all purſuing one general end, their increaſe in the vale, and their union in the ocean. Such as ſpend their lives in cities, and their time in crowds, may enlarge their minds by contemplation, and raiſe it from nature to nature's firſt cauſe.

Of the natural hiſtory of lakes, it may be neceſſary to premiſe a few particulars. The properties of a lake are that it is a collection of waters, contained in ſome cavity in an inland place, of a large extent, ſurrounded with land, and having no communication with the ocean. Lakes may be divided into four kinds. Firſt, Such as neither receive nor ſend forth rivers. Secondly, Such as emit rivers, without receiving any. Thirdly, Such as receive rivers without emitting any; and, Fourthly, Such as both receive and ſend forth rivers. Of the firſt kind, ſome are temporary and others perennial. Moſt of thoſe that are temporary, owe their origin to the rain, and the cavity or depreſſion of the place in which they are lodged: thus in India there are ſeveral ſuch lakes made by the induſtry of the natives, of which ſome are a mile, and ſome two, in circuit; theſe are ſurrounded with a ſtone wall, and being filled in the rainy months, ſupply the inhabitants in dry ſeaſons, who live at a great diſtance from ſprings or rivers. There are alſo ſeveral of this kind formed by the inundations of the Nile and the Niger; and in Muſcovy, Finland, and Lapland, there are many lakes formed, partly by the rains, and partly by the melting of the ice and ſnow: but moſt of the perennial lakes, which neither receive nor emit rivers, probably owe their riſe to ſprings at the bottom, by which they are conſtantly ſupplied.

The ſecond kind of lakes which emit without receiving rivers, is very numerous. Many rivers flow from theſe as out of ciſterns; where their ſprings being ſituate low within a hollow place, firſt fill the cavity and make it a lake, which not being capacious enough to hold all the water, it overflows and forms a river: of this kind is the Wolga, at the head of the river Wolga; the lake Odium, at the head of the Tanais; the Adac, from whence one branch of the river Tigris flows; the Ozero, or white lake, in Muſcovy, is the ſource of the river Shakſna. The great lake Chaamay, which emits four very large rivers, which water the countries of Siam, Pegu, &c.

The third ſpecies of lakes, which

receive rivers, but emit none, apparently owe their origin to thoſe rivers which, in their progreſs from their ſource, falling into ſome extenſive cavity, are collected together, and form a lake of ſuch dimenſions as may loſe as much by exhalation as it continually receives from theſe ſources: of this kind is that great lake improperly called the Caſpian Sea; the lake Aſphaltites, alſo called the Dead Sea; the lake of Geneva, and ſeveral others. Of the fourth ſpecies, which both receive and emit rivers, we reckon three kinds, as the quantity they emit is greater, equal or leſs, than they receive. If it be greater, it is plain that they muſt be ſupplied by ſprings at the bottom; if leſs, the ſurplus of the water is probably ſpent in exhalations; and if it be equal, their ſprings juſt ſupply what is evaporated by the ſun.

Lakes are alſo divided into thoſe of freſh water, and thoſe of ſalt. Dr. Halley is of opinion that all great perennial lakes are ſaline, either in a greater or leſs degree; and that this ſaltneſs increaſes with time; and on this foundation he propoſes a method for determining the age of the world—Large lakes anſwer the moſt valuable purpoſes in the northern regions, the warm vapours that ariſe from them moderating the pinching cold of thoſe climates; and what is ſtill a greater advantage, when they are placed in warmer climates, at a great diſtance from the ſea, the exhalations raiſed from them by the ſun, cauſe the countries that border upon them to be refreſhed with frequent ſhowers, and conſequently prevent their being barren deſerts.

In England, Cumberland and Weſtmoreland poſſeſs the greateſt number of lakes, and thoſe which have been the principal objects of attention with travellers and artiſts. It has been ſuggeſted to us by many reſpectable correſpondents, that a view of one or other of theſe lakes, with appropriate deſcriptions, would form an acceptable ſeries; and we have accordingly procured, for this Magazine, a perſpective drawing of *Graſſmere Water*, which will be followed up with other views occaſionally.

Graſſmere lake, or water, in Weſtmoreland, is a ſmall, but beautiful ſheet of water, about a mile in length, and in ſome places near half a mile broad, having its margin indented with numerous ſmall bays, with rocky and lofty eminences. It is ſeated a few miles north of Ambleſide, in one of the ſweeteſt and moſt romantic receſſes. Mr. Gray's deſcription of this peaceful, happy vale, will raiſe a wiſh in every reader to ſee ſo primœval a place. 'The boſom of the mountains, ſpreading here and there into a broad baſon, diſcover in the midſt Graſſmere water; its margin is hollowed into ſmall bays, with eminences; ſome of rock, ſome of ſoft turf, that half conceal, and vary the figure of the little lake they command; from the ſhore, a low promontory puſhes itſelf far into the water, and on it ſtands a white village, with a pariſh church riſing in the midſt of it: hanging incloſures, corn-fields, and meadows, green as an emerald, with their trees and hedges, and cattle, fill up the whole ſpace from the edge of the water: and juſt oppoſite to you is a large farm-houſe, at the bottom of a ſteep ſmooth lawn, emboſomed in old woods, which climb half way up the mountains' ſides, and diſcover above a broken line of crags that crown the ſcene. Not a ſingle red tile, nor ſtaring gentleman's houſe, or garden wall, break in upon the repoſe of this little, unſuſpected paradiſe; but all is peace, ruſticity, and happy poverty, in its neateſt, moſt becoming attire.'

Mrs. Radcliffe's deſcription is not leſs animated; 'A green ſpreading circle of mountains emboſoms this ſmall lake, and, beyond, a wider range riſes in amphitheatre, whoſe rocky tops are rounded and ſcolloped, yet are great, wild, irregular, and were then overſpread with a tint of faint purple. The ſofteſt verdure margins the water, and mingles the corn in-

cloſures and woods, that wave up the hills; but ſcarcely a cottage any where appears, except at the northern end of the lake, where the village of Graſſmere, and its very neat white church ſtand among trees, near the ſhore with Helme (Holme) Crag, and a multitude of fells, riſing over it and beyond each other in the perſpective. The lake was as clear as glaſs, reflecting the head-long mountains, with every feature of every image on its tranquil banks; and one green iſland varies, but ſcarcely adorns its ſurface, bearing only a rude and now ſhadeleſs hut. At a conſiderable height above the water, the road undulates for a mile, till, near the ſouthern end of Graſſmere, it mounts the crags of a fell.'

Mr. Hutchinſon, in his Hiſtory of Cumberland, gives a ſhort but appropriate deſcription of this 'vale of peace,' which, he ſays, contains in circumference about four miles, conſiſting of meadow and paſture ground. Near the centre is the fine lake, beautified with an iſland. 'From an eminence a little way diſtant from the church, we viewed the whole circle, delighted with the ſcene. The fields were clothed in freſh verdure; the vale was graced with ſome humble cottages diſperſed on the borders of the lake, among which the ſacred fane, with its white tower, ſtood ſolemnly ſuperior. The hills were here and there patched with a few trees, and their ſlopes enlivened by flocks of ſheep that brouſed on each declivity.'

'In mildneſs of character,' ſays a recent but anonymous author, 'in ſecreted calmneſs, Graſſmere is the ſweeteſt ſpot I have viewed. The woods, of all kinds, that enrobe its ſurrounding hills; its graſſy iſland in the very centre, bearing a cottage and a fringe of ſhrubs; the white village ſteeple, and hamlet round it in the vale; theſe altogether, emboſomed in precipitous mountains, or boldly riſing hills, with now and then a hut peeping from their groves, or hanging on their banks, unmoleſted by a ſplendid manſion, or any appendage of the clippings of art, give Graſſmere the air, as Gray expreſſes it, of a little, unſuſpected paradiſe of peace, ruſticity, and happy poverty, in their neateſt, moſt becoming attire. Helme Crag, which guards one end, may be diſcerned from its neighbouring fells, by its broken and pyramidical top, like, what Gray fancied, ſome gigantic building demoliſhed.'

AMERICA.

HOUSE of REPRESENTATIVES, Feb. 17.

THE ſpeaker declared to the houſe, that Thomas Jefferſon, of Virginia, had the votes of ten ſtates; Aaron Burr, of New York, four; and that the votes of two ſtates had been given in blank; and that conſequently Thomas Jefferſon, of Virginia, had been, agreeably to the conſtitution, elected preſident of the United States for the term of four years, commencing on the 4th day of March next. Meſſages were ſent to the preſident of the United States, and to the ſenate, to inform them thereof.

New York, March 9. On Wedneſday laſt, the preſident took the oaths required by the conſtitution, in the ſenate chamber, in the preſence of the ſenate, the members of the houſe of repreſentatives, public officers, and a large concourſe of citizens, previouſly to which he delivered the following addreſs:

'Friends and Fellow Citizens,

'Called upon to undertake the duties of the firſt executive office of our country, I avail myſelf of the preſence of that portion of my fellow-citizens which is here aſſembled, to expreſs my grateful thanks for the favour with which they have been pleaſed to look toward me, to declare a ſincere conſciouſneſs that the taſk is above my talents, and that I approach it with thoſe anxious and awful preſentiments, which the greatneſs of the charge, and the weakneſs of my powers, ſo juſtly inſpire. A riſing nation; ſpread over a wide and fruitful land, traverſing all the ſeas with the rich productions of their induſtry; engaged in commerce with nations, who feel powers and forget right, advancing rapidly to deſtinies beyond the reach of mortal eye; when I contemplate theſe tranſcendant objects, and ſee the honour, the happineſs, and the hopes of this be-

loved country, committed to the iſſue, and the auſpices of this day, I ſhrink from the contemplation, and humble myſelf before the magnitude of the undertaking. Utterly, indeed, ſhould I deſpair, did not the preſence of many whom I here ſee, remind me, that, in the other high authorities provided by our conſtitution, I ſhall find reſources of wiſdom, of virtue, and of zeal, on which to rely under all difficulties. To you, then, gentlemen, who are charged with the ſovereign functions of legiſlation, and to thoſe aſſociated with you, I look with encouragement for that guidance and ſupport, which may enable us to ſteer with ſafety the veſſel, in which all are embarked, amid the conflicting elements of a troubled world.

'During the conteſt of opinion through which we have paſſed, the animation of diſcuſſions and exertions has ſometimes worn an aſpect, which might impoſe on ſtrangers, unuſed to think freely, and to ſpeak and to write what they think; but this being now decided by the voice of the nation, announced according to the rules of the conſtitution, all will of courſe arrange themſelves under the will of the law, and unite in common efforts for the common good. All too will bear in mind this ſacred principle, that though the will of the majority is in all caſes to prevail, that will to be rightful, muſt be reaſonable; that the minority poſſeſs their equal rights, which equal laws muſt protect, and to violate would be oppreſſion. Let us then, fellow-citizens, unite with one heart and one mind; let us reſtore to ſocial intercourſe that harmony and affection, without which liberty, and even life itſelf, are but dreary things; and let us reflect, that having baniſhed from our land that religious intolerance under which mankind ſo long bled and ſuffered, we have yet gained little, if we countenance a political intolerance, as deſpotic as wicked, and capable of as bitter and bloody perſecutions. During the throes and convulſions of the ancient world, during the agoniſing ſpaſms of infuriated man, ſeeking through blood and ſlaughter his long loſt liberty, it was not wonderful that the agitation of the billows ſhould reach even this diſtant and peaceful ſhore—that this ſhould be more felt and feared by ſome and leſs by others, and ſhould divide opinions as to meaſures of ſafety; but every difference of opinion is not a difference of principle. We have called by different names brethren of the ſame principle. We are all Republicans—all Federaliſts. If there be any among us who would wiſh to diſſolve this union, or to change its republican form, let them ſtand undiſturbed as monuments of the ſafety with which error of opinion may be tolerated where reaſon is left free to combat it. I know, indeed, that ſome honeſt men fear that a republican government cannot be ſtrong; that this government is not ſtrong enough. But would the honeſt, in the full tide of ſucceſsful experiment, abandon a government which has ſo far kept us free and firm, in the theoretic and viſionary fear that this government, the world's beſt hope, may, by poſſibility, want energy to preſerve itſelf? I truſt not; I believe this, on the contrary, the ſtrongeſt government on earth. I believe it the only one where every man, at the call of the law, would fly to the ſtandard of the law, and would meet invaſions of the public order, as his own perſonal concern. Sometimes it is ſaid that man cannot be truſted with the government of himſelf—Can he then be truſted with the government of others? Or have we found angels in the form of kings to govern him? Let hiſtory anſwer the queſtion. Let us then with courage and confidence purſue our own federal and republican principles; our attachment to union and repreſentative government. Kindly ſeparated by nature, and a wide ocean, from the exterminating havoc of one quatter of the globe; too high minded to endure the degradations of the others; poſſeſſing a choſen country, with room enough for our deſcendants to the thouſandth and thouſandth generation; entertaining a due ſenſe of our equal right to the uſe of our own faculties, to the acquiſition of our own induſtry, to honour and confidence from our fellow-citizens, reſulting not from birth, but from our actions, and their ſenſe of them, enlightened by a benign religion, profeſſed indeed and practiſed in various forms, yet all of them inculcating honeſty, truth, temperance, gratitude, and the love of man, acknowledging and adoring an overruling Providence, which, by all its diſpenſations, proves that it delights in the happineſs of man here, and his greater happineſs hereafter; with all theſe bleſſings, what more is neceſſary to make us a happy and proſperous people? Still one thing more, fellow-citizens; a wiſe and frugal government, which ſhall reſtrain men from injuring one another, ſhall leave them otherwiſe free to regulate their own purſuits and improvement, and ſhall not take from the mouth of labour the bread

it has earned. This is the ſum of good government; and this is neceſſary to cloſe the circle of our felicities.

'About to enter, fellow-citizens, on the exerciſe of duties which comprehend every thing dear and valuable to you, it is proper you ſhould underſtand what I deem the eſſential principles of our government, and conſequently thoſe which ought to ſhape its adminiſtration. I will compreſs them within the narroweſt compaſs they will bear, ſtating the general principle, but not all its limitations: equal and exact juſtice to all men, of whatever ſtate or perſuaſion, religious or political: peace, commerce, and honeſt friendſhip with all nations; entangling alliances with none: the ſupport of the ſtate governments in all their rights, as the moſt competent adminiſtration for our domeſtic concerns, and the ſureſt bulwarks againſt anti-republican tendencies: the preſervation of the general government in its whole conſtitutional vigour, as the ſheet-anchor of our peace at home and ſafety abroad: a jealous care of the right of election by the people: a mild and ſafe corrective of abuſes which are lopped by the ſword of revolution, where peaceable remedies are unprovided: abſolute acquieſcence in the deciſions of the majority, the vital principle of republics, from which is no appeal but to force, the vital principle and immediate parent of deſpotiſm: a well diſciplined militia, our beſt reliance in peace, and for the firſt moments of war, till regulars may relieve them: the ſupremacy of the civil over the military authority: economy in the public expence, that labour may be lightly burdened: the honeſt payment of our debts, and ſacred preſervation of the public faith: encouragement of agriculture, and commerce, as its handmaid: the diffuſion of information, and arraignment of all abuſes at the bar of the public reaſon: freedom of religion, freedom of the preſs, and freedom of the perſon, under protection of the Habeas Corpus: and Trial by Juries, impartially ſelected. Theſe principles form the bright conſtellation which has gone before us, and guided our ſteps through an age of revolution and reformation. The wiſdom of all our ſages, and blood of our heroes, have been devoted to their attainment: they ſhould be the creed of our political faith, the text of civic inſtruction, the touchſtone by which to try the ſervices of thoſe we truſt; and ſhould we wander from them in moments of error, or of alarm, let us haſten to retrace our ſteps, and regain the road which alone leads to peace, liberty, and ſafety.

'I repair, then, fellow-citizens, to the poſt you have aſſigned me. With experience enough in ſubordinate offices to have ſeen the difficulties of this, the greateſt of all, I have learnt to expect that it will rarely fall to the lot of imperfect man to retire from this ſtation with the reputation and the favour which bring him into it. Without pretenſions to that high confidence you repoſed in your firſt and greateſt revolutionary character, whoſe preeminent ſervices had entitled him to the firſt place in his country's love, and deſtined for him the faireſt page in the volume of faithful hiſtory, I aſk ſo much confidence only as may give firmneſs and effect to the legal adminiſtration of your affairs. I ſhall often go wrong through defect of judgment: when right, I ſhall often be thought wrong by thoſe whoſe poſitions will not command a view of the whole ground. I aſk your indulgence for my own errors, which will never be intentional; and your ſupport againſt the errors of others, who may condemn what they would not, if ſeen in all its parts. The approbation implied by your ſuffrage is a great conſolation to me for the paſt, and my future ſolicitude will be to retain the good opinion of thoſe who have beſtowed it in advance; to conciliate that of others, by doing them all the good in my power, and to be inſtrumental to the happineſs and freedom of all.

'Relying, then, on the patronage of your good will, I advance with obedience to the work, ready to retire from it whenever you become ſenſible how much better choices it is in your power to make; and may that infinite power, who rules the deſtinies of the univerſe, lead our councils to what is beſt, and give them a favourable iſſue for your peace and proſperity.'

DECLARATION *of the King of* PRUSSIA *to the* ROYAL *and* ELECTORAL COUNCIL *of* HANOVER, *and to the Commandants of the Troops.*

AFTER the oppreſſions which neutral navigation and commerce have experienced ſince the beginning of the war on the part of the Engliſh navy, the different courts intereſted in it could no longer refrain, after ſo many uſeleſs complaints, from pro-

tecting the violated rights of their ſubjects with more energy.

The reſult was, the convention entered into on the 16th of December, 1800, between Ruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden, the juſt and moderate principles of which had been formerly adopted and followed by the court of London itſelf; and his majeſty the king of Pruſſia, who had equally experienced this violence, prejudicial to his ſtates and flag, did not heſitate to accede to the treaty.

The contracting courts were on the point of communicating to the belligerent powers their convention, and of adopting arrangements with them, when England, by an unexpected ſtep, diſconcerted this amicable deſign, by laying an embargo upon all the ſhips of the maritime powers of the north in her ports, and thus ſhowing herſelf as an enemy.

It might be expected that his Pruſſian majeſty could not look upon this conduct with a favourable eye and with indifference: to this end he ſent ſoon after to the court of London the declaration of the 12th February, avowing formally and publicly his acceſſion to the convention of St. Peterſburgh, and ſhowing, at the ſame time, the means by which the differences might be accommodated, and an entire rupture avoided.

But, inſtead of adopting the expedient propoſed, England paſſed over in ſilence the note tranſmitted to lord Carysfort, at Berlin. She has continued to treat as enemies the flags of the North; and, in a note ſent by the ſecretary of ſtate, lord Hawkeſbury, to the envoy from Sweden, baron d'Ehren-Sward, dated London, the 7th March, ſhe has once more manifeſted her falſe principles, ſo often refuted;

'That, under the preſent circumſtances, the embargo laid upon the Swediſh ſhips could not be taken off while the court of Stockholm remained attached to a coalition, which had no other object than to force his Britannic majeſty to accept a new maritime law, incompatible with the dignity and independence of his crown, as well as with the rights of his ſubjects.'

Such a declaration was ſoon after ſent to the court of Denmark, and it was added, that ſhe was required to abandon the northern coalition, and to enter into a ſeparate negociation with England. After having received a reply in the negative, the Engliſh charge d'affaires, Drummond, and the plenipotentiary extraordinary, Vanſittart, left Copenhagen the ſame day: in the mean time the Engliſh fleet, under the orders of admiral Parker, deſtined for the Baltic, had actually arrived on the coaſts of Zeeland.

It appears from all theſe events, that the court of London will not abſolutely deſiſt from its inſupportable demands, and accept the means propoſed of an amicable approximation; his Pruſſian majeſty therefore is forced, conformably to his obligations contracted, to adopt the moſt efficacious means to ſupport the convention attached, and to return the inimical meaſures adopted againſt him: to this end he will not only ſhut up the mouths of the Elbe, the Weſer, and the Ems, but will alſo take poſſeſſion of the ſtates belonging to his majeſty the king of England, as elector of Brunſwick-Lunenburg, ſituate in Germany.

With this view, his majeſty the king of Pruſſia demands, requires, and expects from the electoral college of the privy counſellors at Hanover, and of the generality, that they ſubmit to this diſpoſition without delay and reply, and that they follow willingly the orders which ſhall be given relative to the taking poſſeſſion of the electorate by the Pruſſian troops, as well as with reſpect to the electoral countries. His majeſty demands, principally, that the Hanoverian corps, which has hitherto been in the line of demarcation of the north of Germany, be diſbanded, with a proportional part of the other troops. His majeſty requires from the generals and all the other officers, to vow, by writing, not to ſerve againſt his Pruſſian majeſty; on the contrary, to follow ſtrictly his orders till the affair be finiſhed. The troops who ſhall remain with their colours, ſhall go into quarters, one on the right bank of the Leine, one on the left bank of the Alter, and behind the Luhe to the Elbe, where they ſhall remain divided in the towns of Hanover, Giſhorne, Uelgin, Lunenburg, and in the other ſmall towns and villages of that diſtrict. All the other places, comprifing the fortreſs of Hameln, ſhall be delivered up to the Pruſſian troops under the orders of lieut. gen. de Klen.

His majeſty, at the ſame time, announces that the maintenance of the Pruſſian troops ſhall be at the expence of the electoral country. It ſhall begin from the end of the month of April. His majeſty has ſent his cabinet miniſter, Schullenbourg, to announce to the electoral college of privy counſellors and commandants of troops the preſent declaration. On this account, all the connection between the electoral college and his majeſty the king of

England ſhall ceaſe, and the authorities are in conſequence reſponſible to his majeſty the king of Pruſſia for the government and the treaſury. Under the hope of a voluntary ſubmiſſion, his majeſty is induced and ready to promiſe ſolemnly, as well to the nobility as to the burghers, and to all the inhabitants of the electorate, the entire enjoyment of their tranquillity, and the ſecurity of their property. But if, on the contrary, the government and the general officers ſhould be adviſed to prevent the execution of the meaſures adopted, and to oppoſe the entrance of the Pruſſian troops, his majeſty will be obliged to withdraw theſe promiſes, and to treat the electoral ſtates as enemies. The civil and military magiſtrates are therefore reſponſible for the fatal effects which might reſult. It is on this account that his majeſty adviſes them to ſubmit to this ſummons, and to prevent the rigorous meaſures which would inevitably be taken in caſe of refuſal. By order of his majeſty.

(Signed) HAUGWITZ.

Berlin, 30th of March, 1801.

FIRST REPORT *of the* SECRET COMMITTEE *of the* HOUSE *of* COMMONS.

The Committtee of Secrecy, to whom the ſeveral Papers, which were preſented (ſealed up) to the Houſe, by Mr. Chancellor of the Exchequer, upon the 1ſt and 2d days of this inſtant April, by his majeſty's command, were referred; and who were directed to examine the matters thereof, and report the ſame, as ſhall appear to them, to the Houſe:

HAVE proceeded, with the utmoſt diligence, to the conſideration of the matters referred to them; but, from the extent and variety of the information reſpecting different parts of the united kingdom, which has been laid before them, they are under the neceſſity of requeſting the indulgence of the houſe for a ſhort time, before they can ſubmit the reſult of their inveſtigation on all the points to which it has extended. Your committee, however, think it incumbent on them to ſtate, without delay, that they have received the fulleſt proofs that the dangerous and treaſonable conſpiracy for the ſubverſion of the conſtitution and government, which in the year 1798, in concert with a foreign enemy, produced the horrid and ſanguinary rebellion in Ireland, and the progreſs and extent of which, in Great Britain, is detailed in the Report of the Committee of Secrecy in the year 1799, has never been abandoned. The hopes and activity of the diſaffected were checked, and their intentions fruſtrated by the vigilance of government, and by the effect of the laws which were adopted; but their principles and deſigns remained unchanged, and they for ſome time, and more eſpecially of late, have been endeavouring to take advantage of the diſtreſs occaſioned by the high price of proviſions, for carrying thoſe wicked deſigns into effect; it has particularly appeared to your committee, that the inſtigators of theſe proceedings have, on repeated occaſions, ſecretly expreſſed their wiſh for the aggravation of thoſe evils, which they every where endeavour to uſe as a pretext and engine for exciting popular diſcontent: they appeared to have derived their encouragement from the preſſure ariſing from the ſcarcity; from the hopes of aſſiſtance from a foreign enemy upon the invaſion of Great Britain or Ireland; and from the expiration of the laws before referred to, which, from the concurrent teſtimony from different parts of the kingdom, they acknowledge and declare to have been the principal obſtacle to their meaſures. Within a few weeks paſt, and to the lateſt period to which the information received by your committee can apply, their activity has been great and increaſing in the metropolis, and in other parts of the kingdom; every effort is employed that can tend to diſturb the public tranquillity; and recent intelligence has been received from different quarters, which juſtifies your committee in believing, that, at this moment, the immediate object of the diſaffected is to endeavour, by a ſudden exploſion, to avail themſelves of the interval which may ſtill take place before thoſe laws can be renewed. The dangerous ſyſtem of a ſecret confederacy, under the obligation of an unlawful oath, which prevailed in Ireland, and afterward extended itſelf to Great Britain, has been revived, with additional precautions, for the purpoſe of eluding detection, and of inſuring concert, ſecrecy, and diſpatch; and, it appears to be in agitation, ſuddenly, by thoſe means, to call numerous meetings, in different parts of the country, at the ſame day and hour, to an extent, which, if not prevented, muſt materially endanger the public peace; and that among the perſons moſt forward in inſtigating theſe criminal proceedings are ſome of thoſe who had been

detained under the ſuſpenſion of the Habeas Corpus Act, and who have been recently releaſed from confinement. Theſe conſiderations your committee have felt themſelves bound to ſubmit, in the firſt inſtance, to the wiſdom of the houſe, believing that any delay in ſo doing would be attended with material danger to the country: and, for the ſame reaſon, they feel it a duty incumbent on them, to take the firſt moment of ſtating to the houſe, their ſtrong and unanimous opinion, grounded on the information which they have received, that no time ought to be loſt in renewing thoſe meaſures of precaution, which the wiſdom of the legiſlature has before adopted: particularly the act for the Suſpenſion of the Proviſions of the Habeas Corpus Act, and the Act to prevent Seditious Meetings; which, while they remained in force, were attended with the happieſt effects in preſerving the public tranquillity, and which your committee have the moſt confident hope would have the ſame ſalutary operation, under the preſent circumſtances.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Friday, March 20.

LORD Darnley roſe, agreeably to his former notice, which he ſaid had often been repeated, to call the attention of their lordſhips to a queſtion, involving in itſelf the ſafety and ſecurity of the kingdom, the conduct of its late adminiſtration, and the future happineſs and welfare of the empire. His lordſhip here entered into the detail of the diſaſtrous events of the war: the miſcarriage of our continental expeditions, for which the conſtitutional force (the militia) of the kingdom was broke up; the failure of our attempts on the coaſt of France, at Ferrol, and Cadiz; the waſte of the public money, the deficiency of the revenue, and the prodigal abuſe that was made of the large ſums voted for the ſervice, both by ſea and land. He then adverted to the aſcendancy which the enemy had gained over all the powers of Europe, converting our alliances into our enemies, and reducing us to a ſtate of dereliction unparalelled in the hiſtory of our country. The conduct of miniſters with reſpect to the northern powers he deemed puſillanimous, and contended, that however war was inevitable on the part of England with Ruſſia, yet it was not ſo with Denmark. After a general review of the ſtate of public affairs, his lordſhip moved an inquiry into the ſtate of the country.

Lord Holland ſupported the motion of his honourable friend.

The Earl of Weſtmoreland ſaid, he had often heard of expeditions undertaken by France, which had miſcarried; he had heard of the defeat of their troops by Kray, by Cobourg, and Suwarrow; he had heard of the total loſs of their colonies, and marine, and trade, but he never heard it once aſſerted by noble lords on the oppoſite ſide of the houſe, or in the national aſſembly, that its executive councils were unfit to conduct its fleets and armies. He had even heard the fate of its chief conſul, when he fled from and deſerted his army in Egypt, and when, under the deformity of ſuch deſertion, he threw himſelf into a bomb-boat. But he never heard, after ſuch a diſaſter, that he was unqualified to direct thoſe executive councils, and govern France.—He would aſk noble lords, what were then the ſpecific points on which they would ground the inquiry, which might not as well be diſcuſſed as the noble marquis propoſed; and when he had obtained an anſwer to this to his ſatisfaction, and was impreſſed of the neceſſity and magnitude of the occaſion, he would vote for the inquiry, if not, he would reſiſt the motion.

The Earl of Carliſle.—'My lords, although I have on various occaſions given my beſt ſupport to his majeſty's miniſters, I believe it will not be therefore contended, that I am pledged to reſiſt the inveſtigation which is propoſed to be inſtituted by the motion of the noble lord. The difficulties we experience under the preſent circumſtances are very great, and in proportion as our difficulties preſs upon us, we require the aſſiſtance of a ſtrong and wiſe adminiſtration. I am, my lords, no triſler; and it is my earneſt wiſh to call your attention to the dangers which ſurround us on every ſide, and to provide a remedy adequate to meet them. I am not of a nature to deny confidence to thoſe miniſters who are now in office, but I feel it my duty to ſtate to your lordſhips that they do not poſſeſs mine. It is ſufficient for me, in this critical moment, to urge as my objection, that they are not tried, although I may be told, that ſuch a ſentiment goes to prejudge men before they can be tried. This, let me remark, is, however, no time for dangerous experiments. We all know that thoſe who preceded them

in office were men of great talents, wiſdom, and experience; and, although their ſucceſſors are perſons highly reſpectable, we are left to aſcertain the nature and extent of the powers and capacities for the adminiſtration of public affairs with which they may be gifted. Thus ſituated, I feel it incumbent on me to ſay, that we ought to go into the propoſed committee of inquiry.

Lord Fife gave his cordial ſupport to the motion.

Lord Grenville repeated, that the ſole reaſon which induced him and his friends to requeſt his majeſty to accept of their reſignation, was a queſtion having ariſen which they thought of the higheſt national conſequence; but which, from a difference of opinion, they found they could not bring forward with that degree of ſupport which they thought neceſſary while they remained in office; he denied, and begged the houſe would give him credit, that he never had, or ever would give official advice for which he did not conſider himſelf as fully reſponſible. No leſs unfounded, he ſaid, were the repeated inſinuations, that he and his colleagues had not been ſincere in their negociations for peace. He was as much an enemy to war as any of their lordſhips could poſſibly be; but this war had been found neceſſary, and to the ſteady perſeverance in parliament in maintaining it, was the country now indebted for all the ſuperior advantages we enjoyed over every other who had blindly made friends of the French republic; however, when they were inclined to make a juſt and honourable peace, he had no doubt, let the miniſters be who they might, they would be ready to treat with them; but until ſuch a peace could be obtained, we had ſufficient reſources to carry on the conteſt.

Lords Moira, Grenville, and Darnley, ſeverally explained, after which the houſe divided, when the numbers appeared, for the committee of inquiry,

Contents 25—Non contents 127—Majority 102.

Adjourned at half paſt two in the morning.

Monday, March 23.

The Earl of Radnor, noticing the precipitancy with which the Iriſh Martial-law bill was hurried on, moved the reading of the ſtanding orders on the regulation of the reſpective ſtages of bills, and diſapproved of the proceedings of this, as a caution for the future.

Earl Moira, earl Fitzwilliam, and lord Holland, expreſſed their diſapprobation, and ſaid, they were not ſufficiently apprized of ſuch a proceeding; ſo little, that they did not expect it, from what was ſaid on the ſubject laſt Friday night, in reply to which, the lord chancellor urged, that the neceſſity of the caſe juſtified the proceeding, and ſaid, that the bill was open on the third reading to all the objections their lordſhips were diſpoſed to make to it.

Earl Fitzwilliam opened the oppoſition to the third reading of the bill, on the grounds that ſufficient reaſons were not laid down for the paſſing a law which deprived the people of Ireland of their liberties. Every conſtitutional guard and protection which they had under the legal form of their government was taken from them, and they were expoſed to the horrors of a military government, which arbitrarily diſpoſed of their lives and properties. He recited the hardſhips to which they muſt be expoſed under military tribunals, when brought before them under charges of high treaſon—unprotected, without the formality of juſtice, which was the ſecurity for innocence, and which alone could give them the benefit of a fair and impartial trial.

Lord Clare ſaid, the noble earl called for reaſons for the bill: he would, with permiſſion of the houſe, give him ſuch as were, he believed, irreſiſtible. His lordſhip moved the reading of the report of the Iriſh committee of 1798, together with other documents, that ſerved to develope the conſpiracy and principles on which the ſubſequent rebellion was founded, and which eſtabliſhed a number of ſeditious and treaſonable facts. When theſe papers were read, his lordſhip reſumed, and ſaid, that degrading as he muſt feel the law which was now going to paſs, yet, ſuch was the dreadful ſituation to which his country was reduced, that they were now driven to the alternative of ſupplicating from the united parliament the protection of military law, or of ſubmitting their lives and properties to an incenſed and furious democracy. He aſſerted, that no law could exiſt without ſuch a ſupport; the legitimate government of the land muſt otherwiſe give way to a government of maſſacre and blood. None but thoſe who had the hard and ſevere battle to fight, could form any idea of the atrocities committed by the conſpirators and rebels, whoſe principles were ſo rootedly hoſtile to the conſtitution and government, that they waited for an opportunity of trampling on and ſubverting the power and property of the country, and giving it up as a prey to a French in-

vader. His lordſhip, in a melancholy recital of the atrocities of his deluded countrymen, ſaid, that ſo widely ſpread was the infection of Jacobiniſm, no man was ſafe. He inſtanced the murder of his own ſervant, under his own roof: and added, that it was as uſual for his ſervant to hand him his fire-arms, when he went abroad, as his hat; his bedchamber more reſembling an armoury than a manſion of peace. He then aſked, what noble lord could ſuppoſe that kingdom could adminiſter laws or juſtice, when thoſe fierce and cold-blooded banditti, organized to maſſacre and plunder, infeſted every part of it? Where the judges could not travel without a military guard, and where their lives were in conſtant and imminent danger? He averred, that ſo extenſive was their ſyſtem of terror, that jurors, witneſſes, &c. were all intimidated, as they held their courts themſelves, and executed their murderous decrees by emiſſaries diſpatched after the condemned, who, if they did not diſpatch him, were themſelves murdered. He voted for the bill; ſtrong and ſevere as it was, and much as he deplored it, yet he was reconciled when he reflected, it would be adminiſtered by a man as diſtinguiſhed for his intrepidity as for his mildneſs and humanity.

The Earl of Moira wiſhed a veil could be thrown over the paſt, and that a mild ſyſtem could be introduced into Ireland, and purſued. Such would moſt likely reclaim the people to their duty and allegiance, and he, for this reaſon, recommended moderation—ſuch as the government, ſuch the people would be: for when ſedition became general, he thought with Plato, the government was in fault. He voted againſt the bill.

Earl Mulgrave replied to earl Moira, and was followed by lord Grenville, lord Townſend, lord Carlton, lord Kinnoul, lord Darnley, lord Downſhire, lord Radnor, and the archbiſhop of Caſhel, who admitted the neceſſity of the bill.—Lord Limerick ſtrongly ſupported the opinion of lord Clare, and was oppoſed by lord Caernarvon, lord Holland, and lord King, who voted againſt the motion.

The queſtion was then put, on which the houſe divided,

Contents 90—Non cont. 8—Majority 82.

The bill was then read a third time, and paſſed.

Adjourned.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Monday, March 16.

Lord Caſtlereagh ſaid, before he moved the order of the day for the ſecond reading of the Martial-law bill, he wiſhed to trouble the houſe with a few words reſpecting the regulation of courts-martial under this bill in Ireland. He ſaid, a clauſe was propoſed to this in 1799, but he thought it was more reſpectful to leave the power to the chief governor, who would conſequently take upon himſelf a heavy reſponſibility: as, in certain caſes, it might have been neceſſary that ſo ſmall a number as three ſhould be deemed ſufficient to conſtitute a court martial, yet he did not know a ſingle inſtance where it had been confined to ſo ſmall a number. Indeed, almoſt in every caſe, a previous enquiry was inſtituted by the officers or magiſtrates, who reported, and, according to their report, a court marſhal was or was not granted. Without encumbering the law with a detail of regulations, the preſent bill preferred leaving the queſtion to the viceroy, to whom of courſe it attached a great and heavy reſponſibility. His lordſhip then moved the order of the day, which being read,

Mr. Taylor ſaid, he was not in the habit of calumniating any man, much leſs the chief governor of Ireland, for whom he had the greateſt reſpect. He never intended to bring forward the motion by a ſide wind, but in a frank, open, and candid manner. If the noble lord recollected the debates in the Iriſh Houſe of Commons, he muſt remember, that the infliction of torture was publicly attributed to one perſon during the diſcuſſions on the bill. He contended, that what was publicly mentioned in the parliament of Ireland, he had a right to ſtate in the united houſe of commons. He had it from good authority, that the circumſtance occurred during the adminiſtration of lord Camden, and ſince the lord lieutenancy of that excellent man, the marquis Cornwallis. He had alſo heard from ſeveral Engliſh gentlemen lately returned from Ireland, that the country was quite tranquil, which certainly did not juſtify the paſſing the bill at preſent.

Sir John Parnell obſerved, that lord Cornwallis certainly always inclined to the ſide of mercy. He did not ſuppoſe the hon. member meant to imply any accuſation againſt the noble marquis, but it muſt be admitted, that in the height of the rebellion, many cruelties were exerciſed, but not by courts martial or the lord lieutenant. If the ſtate of Ireland was ſuch that martial law was neceſſary, he wiſhed to ſee it modified from year to year, until it aſſimilated as cloſe as poſſible to the con-

ſtitution. He wiſhed exceedingly to ſee one code of laws for England and Ireland, and he regretted much that while the Habeas Corpus act was ſuffered to expire here, it was in its progreſs to be continued in Ireland. He thought the two countries were to be identified, not alone in taxes, but their laws and their conſtitution. He was of opinion, that the application of the military force was neceſſary in Ireland, but he wiſhed the preſent law would approach the conſtitution as near as the nature of the caſe would admit.

Sir L. Parſons ſaid, during the laſt year there was but one court martial under the bill. He did not now riſe for the purpoſe of oppoſing the order of the day, but merely to vindicate the character of the country. In addition to this, it was a pretty good proof of its not being neceſſary, that no recourſe was had to act under the bill in the province of Connaugh, which compriſed the fourth part of Ireland.

Lord Caſtlereagh ſaid, as long as the civil power was adequate to maintain a due reſpect for the laws, and that judges and jurors could do their duty without interruption, recourſe would not be had to the act.

The queſtion being called for, the motion was agreed to.—The bill was then read a ſecond time, and ordered to be committed.

Wedneſday, March 18.

Lord Caſtlereagh propoſed an amendment on the Iriſh Martial-law bill. The increaſing the number of officers to ſit upon courts martial. The preſent number was five at the leaſt; but it was deemed proper to increaſe that number where it could be done with convenience.

Mr. Ryder alſo moved a reſolution, that the committee ſhould have power to amend the acts.

This and the former clauſe were read a firſt time.

Mr. Grey deprecated the whole meaſure, as erecting a ſyſtem of tyranny and oppreſſion. The power of puniſhment, when veſted in the military, was ſo liable to be abuſed, that he wiſhed the houſe ſeriouſly to pauſe before they ſanctioned this bill. If, however, it ſhould be carried, he had a clauſe to propoſe, which was, that no puniſhment ſhould be inflicted, unleſs ordered by the ſentence of a court-martial.

Mr. Dawſon had confidence, that as the noble lord (Caſtlereagh) had amended the bill from three to ſeven, ſo he hoped he would concur in opinion, that not leſs than thirteen ſhould compoſe a court martial, to decide on the life of an individual. He would alſo propoſe a qualification of age, that each member ſhould have attained the age of twenty-one.

General Loftus thought ſeven ſufficient; and the age of ſeventeen was what the Mutiny-act required.

Mr. Ogle inſiſted on the danger of Ireland, which called for the ſtrong arm of government. He could relate a tale which would harrow up the ſoul; barbarities not exceeded by Eſquimaux or Iroquois Indians. He cautioned the houſe againſt a convulſion in Ireland; its conſequences would ſhake the empire to its foundation. He was for the meaſure.

Lord Caſtlereagh very ably juſtified the proviſions of the bill, and reſiſted the amendments. Juſtice ſhould be prompt and exemplary; but this object could not be attained, if, while the army was diſtributed and employed in protecting the country, they were impeded in making up courts martial through want of a ſufficient number of members; for many courts might be ſitting at once. The diſpatch of the buſineſs was the eſſence of the meaſure, and the effect of execution would be loſt if the rebel was not puniſhed on the ſpot. The diſcipline of the army was another object of conſideration; and on this he grounded another argument, why large drafts could not be made on the officers who ſhould be at the ſtation of command; for were the diſcipline affected, the country muſt loſe its ſole protection.

After a few obſervations, the queſtion was put, but the houſe did not divide, the original number, ſeven, remained.

Friday, March 20.

On the queſtion being put that the Martial law bill be read a third time, Sir John Parnel ſaid, he did not riſe to oppoſe the motion, but merely to ſay, that he differed in opinion with thoſe who argued that the bill was neceſſary, in conſequence of the diſturbed ſtate of the country. He aſſured the houſe on the contrary, that Ireland was tranquil.

Sir F. Burdett ſaid, the houſe was called upon to paſs the bill, on the grounds of looſe aſſertion, without the eſtabliſhment of any fact. The cauſe of the diſſolution of the Iriſh parliament would be found, he ſaid, in the Convention-bill paſſed in that country—the Gunpowder act, and the bill for Indemnifying Torture—theſe were acts of which the Iriſh parliament ſtood convicted, and was now finally extinct. He next alluded to a circumſtance, where a yeoman of the name of Wooladine, becauſe he had an animoſity with a man of the

name of Dogherty, called him out of his bed, and ſhot him dead on the ſpot. This murderer was tried by a court martial, and eſcaped, having pleaded that he was authoriſed ſo to do by directions iſſued by marquis Cornwallis, that every loyaliſt in arms was authorized to ſhoot any perſon who was ſuſpected of being a rebel.

Mr. R. Fitzgerald obſerved, that very great acrimony exiſted on the part of the violent royaliſts and the rebels; but as to the remainder of the people of Ireland, their demeanour was peaceable and proper. The motion was then put and carried.

Monday, March 23.

The Chancellor the Exchequer (Mr. Addington) took the oaths and his ſeat, as member for Devizes.

Wedneſday, March 25.

Mr. Grey roſe, in purſuance of the notice he had formerly given, to bring forward his motion on the ſtate of the nation, notice of which had been given by him ſo often, and which he ſo very reluctantly poſtponed. He felt, however, that the cauſes of thoſe delays never had exiſted with himſelf; on the contrary, he was ſolicitous that his motion ſhould come on, and that when the diſcuſſion ſhould take place, every attention ſhould be manifeſted on his part to a clear elucidation of the various topics he meant to touch upon. The avowed object of the war was the reſtoration of the royal family of France; or (he would put that out of the queſtion) rather to reſtrain the power and check the aggrandſement of that nation. Mark the reſult; at the end of a nine years war, we find the power of France greater than the moſt extravagant ideas could poſſibly have made it. We find France reſpected by all Europe, except Great Britain, as a power from whoſe friendſhip every thing may be gained, but from whoſe enmity every thing may be dreaded. We find that our allies have, one by one, deſerted us, and 'our great and magnanimous ally' at this moment in a formidable coalition againſt us. If we turn our eyes to the ſituation of Great Britain, if we contraſt that ſituation nine years ago with its preſent, humanity will be appalled, and virtue will ſhudder at its danger. We are now reduced to the deplorable ſtate of acting upon the defenſive, inſtead of being an offenſive enemy. Theſe facts undoubtedly called for inveſtigation. Enquiry ought to be inſtituted into thoſe cauſes which had reduced this once glorious people to ſuch diſtreſs. The wound which had been given ought to be probed to the bottom, and the inflictors of that wound ought to be called to an account for their miſconduct. A right hon. gentleman oppoſite to him, who had been the greateſt promoter of the war, had always ſaid, that when an opportunity offered, he ſhould negociate for peace. That opportunity had occurred, but the overtures made by the chief conſul of France had been rejected with contumely, and treated with diſdain. For ſuch conduct he ſaw no reaſon, and he truſted that a candid and explicit declaration of the reaſons which induced the then miniſters to reject thoſe overtures would be given before the houſe broke up. The right hon. gentleman had alſo repeatedly ſaid, that the preſent war had been eminently ſucceſsful. This he could not underſtand. Compare the motives which are the cauſe of the war, and compare the motives which are the cauſe of its continuance, and let any man prove, if he can, that the war has been ſucceſsful. He ſhould ſhow that it had been unſucceſsful in almoſt every enterprize which had been undertaken. It has been ſaid, that victory gives ſecurity: he would only aſk, Where was the ſecurity of this country? Any partial ſucceſſes we have experienced have been more than balanced by the diſgraces we have endured. The principles upon which the late miniſters entered into the war were unjuſt to a degree. He ſhould not now repeat them: they were in the breaſt of every man who had the intereſt, welfare, and independence of Great Britain at heart. He blamed the principles of the war, as impoſing and dictating terms and forms of government to a people, who ought to have been treated with more reſpect. All our conqueſts in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies were of no ſervice to this country, as each conqueſt took away a part of our domeſtic force, which (ſince the war had been gone into) ought to have been employed in Europe. It ought to have been employed in defence of our own ſhores; in place of which, additional burthens are impoſed to ſupport the armed aſſociations. Here Mr. Grey took a review of the war, and reprobated the conduct of miniſters. He ſaid, that an inquiry ought to be inſtituted into the conduct of the old adminiſtration; were that inquiry fully gone into, he was convinced a vote of high cenſure would paſs upon their conduct. This might probably have a good effect upon the new adminiſtration, by affording them a leſſon—that the country was not to be abuſed with impunity, nor the ſocial compact to be violated at pleaſure. A vote

of cenſure upon the late adminiſtration would convince the enemy, that the houſe was deſirous of peace; and he believed, every real and genuine Britiſh ſubject would rejoice at ſuch a vote. With regard to the Northern Confederacy, he had, on a former occaſion, obſerved, that thoſe powers were leagued together, in order to prevent veſſels from being ſearched. This coalition was founded upon the principle, that provided thoſe veſſels carry no contraband articles, no ſearch ſhall take place. He had alſo, upon a former occaſion, recommended a line of moderation, but by no means derogatory from the national dignity. He conceived it to be a maxim in morals as well as in politics, that the fundamental principle of all policy muſt be juſtice; had all our proceedings toward neutral nations been regulated by this principle, we ſhould not have been at preſent in a ſtate of war with thoſe nations. Their ſhips have been detained unjuſtly by our cruizers; innumerable complaints have been made upon this kind of proceeding by all the Northern Powers, until at laſt they have been driven to this extremity, and goaded by the various inſults we have offered to the means of retaliation and ſelf-defence. The right of ſearching neutrals generally terminated in the *ultima ratio regum*. It involved two queſtions, whether or no the goods were contraband or free: he put free goods entirely out of the queſtion. Whether naval ſtores were deemed contraband, he was not exactly certain. The learned judge of the admiralty ſays, that they have only become contraband by being eſteemed ſo, although he did not know why, and that they have been eſteemed contraband by practice only. By our treaty with Ruſſia, naval ſtores were brought to this country ſince the war without interruption from French veſſels. He ſhould not dwell upon this point, as it would be very fully diſcuſſed in the ſequel of the debate. Denmark and Sweden could not ſend naval ſtores, but they could and did ſend proviſions and grain to this country. No veſſel is allowed to enter a port when blockaded by our fleets: he had a very ſhort obſervation to make upon this ſyſtem—France has very little, if any, maritime commerce; but from the powerful aſcendancy ſhe has acquired on the continent, ſhe can extend her own internal commerce all over Europe. He had been informed, that this country carried on a trade direct with France; but this trade he condemned, as affording a means to France to be independent of Britiſh manufacture entirely. Mr. Grey entered into a long detail of the various wars in which we had been engaged from 1600 downward,—and contended, that the right of neutrals to enter a port in a ſtate of blockade never had been challenged. He then concluded by moving, 'That the houſe ſhould reſolve itſelf into a committee of the whole houſe, to take into conſideration the preſent State of the Nation.'

Mr. Dundas ſaid, that the hon. gentleman had gone into a very long detail of the military operations of the war, the failure of which had been attributed entirely to him, merely becauſe he had been war miniſter, without once thinking, or taking into his conſideration, the various hazards which an army had to encounter. At all times, when ſubjects of that nature had been agitated in the houſe, he had uniformly declared his inclination, that his conduct ſhould be diſcuſſed. The hon. gentleman had gone far in ſtating, that the country was ruined and beggared by the late miniſters, but upon this he ſhould afterward ſay a few words. No war can be carried on by this country unleſs we deſtroy the commerce and navigation of the enemy. If this is done, they are diſabled from meeting you, and of courſe a great point is gained. The deſtruction of their military force muſt depend upon the deſtruction of their commerce, in the ſame way as an able general would deſtroy the magazines which ſupplied the place he was beſieging. No war can be carried on by this country, unleſs we engage a part of our force upon the continent. This, at firſt, may have an effect upon our market, but we muſt attack the collonial poſſeſſions of our enemies, in order to open a market for ourſelves. He ſtated the conduct of this war, as applicable to thoſe principles; and as inſtances of our attacking the colonial poſſeſſions of the French, mentioned the capture of the French Weſt India Iſlands. He admitted that the attempts which had been made upon Ferrol and Cadiz had failed; but he denied that the expedition to Holland had not been attended with ſucceſs; one of the objects of which was to create a diverſion upon the Rhine in favour of our allies, had been attained; and had ſir Ralph Abercrombie experienced ſuch weather as the ſeaſon of the year authoriſed him to expect, he would have been in poſſeſſion of Amſterdam, almoſt before the Dutch could know that the expedition was directed againſt Holland. Immediately after ſir Ralph left England, he was aſſailed by a moſt dreadful tempeſt,

which kept him beating about within ſight of the coaſt, by which means the enemy was apprized of our deſign, and collected a numerous army from all quarters in order to oppoſe him. One important object had been attained. Ten ſail of the line had been brought away from Holland, and yet the hon. gentleman ſays, the expedition totally failed! Gentlemen would recollect that the army returned in October. The men were as yet unacquainted with their officers, and before the regiments could be brought out to exerciſe, the ſevere weather ſet in, and continued till March. The hon. gentleman blamed the miniſters for delay in ſending off their reinforcements to our allies, but he muſt take all theſe circumſtances into conſideration, and he will find that no blame whatever can poſſibly be attached to the late miniſters. This was a plain ſtatement of facts, as they ſtood. The hon. gentleman, in mentioning all thoſe calamities, as he was pleaſed to call them, which had happened to our army, forgot entirely to mention the ſucceſſes of our navy, which had been ſplendid beyond any precedent in our hiſtory. Mr. Dundas then read a liſt of ſhips of the line, frigates, and other veſſels of war, which had been captured by the Britiſh navy during the war, and which amounted to upward of thirteen hundred ſail of different deſcriptions. If theſe captures were to be called partial ſucceſſes, he did not know what appellation the hon. gentleman might find for the moſt brilliant achievements. Certain he was, that all the failures of our army, if failures they can be called, are more than compenſated by the courage, intrepidity, and ſucceſs of our marine. The various engagements which had taken place this war between our fleets and thoſe of the enemy had uniformly excited the admiration of ſurrounding nations. The northern confederacy, which appeared ſo tremendous to the hon. gentleman, was not to be much dreaded. Any warfare we might carry on with thoſe ſtates muſt be entirely maritime; we have the experience of what our fleets have done, and we have the hopes of what they may do again. The right of ſearching neutrals he defended, and contended that we poſſeſſed that right, inaſmuch as being at war, and we were juſtified in taking every means to prevent ſupplies getting into the ports of our enemy. The ſtate of the country was ſaid to be dreadful: he admitted that there was a temporary ſcarcity which no human wiſdom could foreſee or prevent; he praiſed the patience of the people under the preſſure, but truſted they would have little more occaſion to exerciſe it. He deprecated the plea of exciting diſtruſt and alarm in the minds of the people, and declared, he ſhould always oppoſe ſuch attempts wherever he might meet with them. Mr. Dundas then concluded a moſt eloquent and forcible ſpeech, by voting againſt the motion.

Sir Wm. Young ſaid, that he would give his vote for the enquiry.

Mr. Pitt ſpoke to the following effect:—Sir, I think that gentlemen cannot be prepared to give a vote for the inquiry, unleſs they are alſo prepared to retract their own principles, and have changed their opinion on the nature of that ſtruggle, which a majority of that houſe and of the country had approved. I hope, therefore, for the honour of the houſe, and the honour and ſafety of the country, they will not adopt the ſentiments of thoſe whoſe advice, if followed, would have diminiſhed the reſources, impaired the ſtrength, and leſſened the ſecurity of the empire. I now proceed to the queſtion of confidence, ſo far as reſpects the new adminiſtration. It was made no objection to me, on my coming into office, that I had no perſonal claim to confidence; but it was objected to me that I came into office, in oppoſition to a ſet of men who did enjoy confidence. The argument of gentlemen is this, 'Becauſe you are, from ſome unknown cauſe, deprived of thoſe miniſters who had your confidence, and becauſe they are ſucceeded by men whoſe principles are likely to prove the ſame, therefore you, who put your faith in that very ſet of principles, are to refuſe your confidence to theſe new miniſters who maintain them.' So far for the queſtion of confidence. If, however, theſe men ſo appointed be not new to the love and eſteem of the country; if it ſhould be found that they enjoyed the confidence of that houſe; if they then ſhould be found poſſeſſed of every virtue that enſures private eſteem and public veneration; if one of them ſhould have already received peculiar marks of the confidence of that houſe, by his appointment to the firſt ſeat in it, to its chair, by an unanimous vote, and in more ſeſſions than one: 'If you, ſir,' (ſaid Mr. Pitt, turning to the preſent chancellor of the exchequer), 'who have received theſe marks of confidence, have quitted a ſtate of comparative dignity and repoſe, and accepted a ſituation of difficulty; this, ſurely, is ſome proof that you have accepted it from patriotic and honourable motives.' I will next aſk, what

man has given more proofs of attention to buſineſs, of underſtanding, and talent, and who more perſonal and hereditary virtues, than the noble lord, who alſo forms another part of this adminiſtration (lord Hawkeſbury)? I will except that man who is now almoſt a new member (Mr. Fox); I admit he is an exception to almoſt every other public man whom I have ever known; but with that exception, I call upon the gentlemen on the other ſide of the houſe to ſtake any other man ſo fit to fill the ſtation, and I think I do no diſparagement to any man among them, if I ſay, there are none of them ſuperior to my hon. friend. Is it neceſſary to obſerve on the talent and legal knowledge of the noble lord who is to hold the great ſeal? Is the name of lord St. Vincent new, and at a period of the war, too, in which no department is ſo important as that of the navy? Is it nothing, I ſay, to have at the head of the admiralty that noble lord, whoſe name is a ſhield and a bulwark? Having ſaid thus much on the general queſtion of how far his majeſty's preſent miniſters are entitled to confidence, may I now be permitted to ſay a few words on the ground on which my colleagues and myſelf have retired from office, the ignonorance of which is the ſole myſtery attending it? To retire voluntarily from ſcenes and ſituations which muſt gratify the higheſt ambition, and might be naturally ſuppoſed the objects of their fondeſt hopes and wiſhes, does not apparently furniſh any preſumption againſt the honeſty and integrity of the motive. In my own defence I muſt, however, ſay, that my conduct for ſeventeen years paſt, in which I have been in office, furniſhes nothing on which to raiſe a ſuſpicion that I would reſign from any difficulty in my ſituation. My whole political life is evidence againſt any ſuch inſinuation; and, ſo far from a wiſh to evade difficulty or danger, I have, in the month ſince I gave in my reſignation, made myſelf reſponſible for a meaſure of the greateſt and moſt critical importance (the ſailing of the North Sea fleet). Here, ſurely, is a proof that I have not ſhunned difficulty of reſponſibility. I will ſay, then, that if I felt a conviction, that the meaſure to which I have already alluded (Catholic Emancipation), might be reſorted to with effect, and that I was prevented from bringing it forward in the way only in which it could have complete ſucceſs, I was perfectly right in retiring from my official ſituation. I do not think, however, that the preſent is the fitteſt moment to diſcuſs it with advantage to thoſe for whoſe benefit it is immediately intended; but if ever the queſtion ſhall be agitated, I ſhall explain myſelf on every topic. In adverting however, to this ſubject, I muſt diſclaim the phraſe Catholic Emancipation, ſo often and ſo improperly applied to it. I do not think that the extenſion of the few advantages which ſtill remain to be granted to the Catholics, in addition to the numerous and important rights and privileges conferred upon them during his majeſty's reign, deſerves to be called Emancipation. I do think that the extenſion of theſe few remaining rights, coming after the Union, will be as innocent and ſafe as it would have been dangerous and deſtructive before the completion of that meaſure. On every principle of expediency, juſtice, and liberality, I think it undeniable. Mr. Pitt having argued theſe points at length, and with great force and ingenuity, then proceeded to vindicate himſelf and his colleagues from the charge of incurring ſuſpicions injurious to their ſovereign, by their ſilence. Mr. Pitt next adverted to the charge of having given a pledge to the Catholics, as follows:—As to promiſes, held out to the Catholics of Ireland, by a noble lord at the head of the government of that country, whoſe name is not even at this day mentioned but with reverence and eſteem, I did know that he did make a communication to the Catholics of the cauſe of the change in his majeſty's councils, in order to prevent any miſconception that might induce and excite diſcontent in that part of the united kingdom. I alſo ſaid, that when the obſtacles which now ſtood in the way ſhould be removed, we would ſupport it; but if, in the mean time, it ſhould be preſſed to be brought forward for factious or any other improper purpoſe, that I would reſiſt with equal firmneſs and reſolution. As to any other pledge, I gave none, and I am anxious to give none. I know the Catholics themſelves conceived no ſuch pledge. The Catholics might expect it, becauſe the more I conſider the meaſure, the more neceſſary do I think it as a conſequence of the union. It was natural for them, therefore, to expect it would follow that meaſure; but, as to a pledge being given to them, I diſtinctly ſay there was none. Mr. Pitt then proceeded to aſſign his reaſons on declining to enter into the general queſtion, it having been ſo ably argued by his right hon. friend, and the ſeveral topics having been repeatedly diſ-

cuſſed in former debates. On theſe points, therefore, ſaid he, I ſhall ſay nothing. On the object of the war we are ſometimes charged with having continued it for the reſtoration of royalty in France. I certainly did ſay that royalty was deſirable, as being the ſpecies of government beſt ſuited for that country, and affording moſt ſecurity to us; but I never did ſay that it was a *ſine qua non*, in the purſuit of which we ſhould ever loſe ſight of one opportunity of peace; ſo that the charge of changing the objects of the war reſolves itſelf into this, that we did not purſue any particular object to madneſs, and the extreme of enthuſiaſm, but combined in our view many objects together. We had three diſtinct objects in the war—royalty as the form of government moſt deſirable in France, but in caſe that ſhould not be attainable, then the protection of the liberty and independence of Europe connected with the ſafety and intereſts of this country; and, laſtly, if this object failed alſo, to maintain ourſelves ſafe and ſecure in the midſt of the wreck of nations, and to protect the honour, the revenues, and the conſtitution of Great Britain. Mr. Pitt next alluded to the charge of diſtreſs ariſing from the high price of proviſions in conſequence of the war, and hoped that gentlemen would not lay out of their conſideration the various other cauſes, ſuch as the badneſs of the ſeaſons, which, as they have been frequently mentioned, we ſhall not now repeat. As to the diſpute with the Northern Powers, he had many reaſons, he ſaid, for not entering fully into this queſtion. Gentlemen had endeavoured to fix the ſubject with our conduct to other nations beſide thoſe concerned, and particularly to involve it with our diſcuſſions with America; but the fact was, it grew out of the armed neutrality of 80, had increaſed, and was now extended ſo as to embrace our maritime rights and privileges, and put the deareſt intereſts of the country at iſſue. The firſt of theſe was, that free ſhips make free goods; and on this ſubject he hoped gentlemen would anſwer the five following queſtions;—Firſt, then, he denied that free ſhips make free goods, on the ground both of the general law of nations and particular treaties. Secondly, he denied that the Northern Powers were juſtified in denying our definition of merchandiſe, contraband in war, for, he contended, that all articles applicable to the uſe of war were comprehended under that appellation. Thirdly, he maintained, that in caſe of blockade it was not neceſſary that the blockading veſſels ſhould be cloſe to the place, but only ſo near that a ſhip could not enter without running a riſk of being captured. Fourthly, he denied the right of neutral nations to carry on any trade which they were not permitted to carry on before the war; and, Fifthly, he denied the right of neutrals to protect their merchant veſſels from viſitation by granting eſcorts. Mr. Pitt having laid down theſe five points, proceeded to argue them with great force and ingenuity, upon general principles, and ſpecific treaties. It had been ſaid, that this principle had already been given up in ſeveral treaties formed by this country; but would any man ſeriouſly aſſert, that a compromiſe of this principle in a few particular inſtances for adequate conſideration, or upon grounds of alliance and mutual intereſt, was any thing like a general dereliction of it? There were, he ſaid, three powers to whom it had been ceded by commercial treaty—to France, for inſtance, in the treaty which ſucceeded the American war; but every man muſt ſee that it was a principle, in this caſe, which could only remain coexiſtent with the continuance of peace, as it was pretty obvious that, if France ſhould be engaged in war, it would be moſt probably one againſt England; and it was ceded to Holland and Portugal, upon the ground of exiſting alliance, and the ſtrong ſuppoſition that if either of theſe ſhould be engaged in war, it would be on the ſide of England. But could it enter into the mind of any man, that ſuch a ceſſion would be made to any power in the contemplation of a poſſible war with that power? If it had been even reſiſted at the end of the American war, a moment at which the fleets of the enemy triumphed, not only in the ſeas of Europe, but in climes far remote, did it follow that it muſt be permitted now, when the fleets of England were ſo ſuperior, in order to permit the enemy to recruit that commerce and marine, by the deſtruction of which we had atchieved ſo many advantages to our own, and which it was our duty to ſecure and perpetuate? He concluded by voting againſt the motion.

Mr. Fox roſe a few minutes after twelve—As I have been complimented, he began by ſaying, by the right hon. gentleman who ſpoke laſt, with the appellation of being a new member, I ought, perhaps, to implore the patience and indulgence of the houſe. Sir, the debate which has taken place has, from the very nature of it, introduced ſo great a variety of topics,

that it is rather difficult to know where to begin. But the right hon. gentleman has, by the latter part of his ſpeech, ſo particularly pointed at me, that I am naturally led to touch firſt upon that which did not, I muſt confeſs, appear to me to be either one of the moſt ſolid or the moſt ſplendid parts of his ſpeech. He ſays, the time will come when we may diſcuſs the neutral queſtion both as ſtateſmen and as lawyers. Now, ſir, certainly I have but little claim to the firſt of theſe characters, and none at all to the ſecond. But with reſpect to the queſtion itſelf, the hon. gentleman, I think, ſtated, firſt, the neutral principle contended for to be, that free bottoms make free goods; ſecondly, the contraband principle; and, thirdly, the denial of the right of ſearching neutral ſhips under convoy. Theſe were the three chief principles: there was alſo a fourth, which relates to blockaded ports. Upon the firſt of theſe points, which I contend to be the ſole point of the armed neutrality of 1780, we have heard it ſtated to be a Jacobin principle. This Jacobin principle was firſt broached by Frederick the Great, about the middle of the laſt century. That Frederick was a philoſopher I know, but I never heard he was a Jacobin. But the right hon. gentleman feeling himſelf, perhaps, not quite ſo much in favour with the church as he was, is content to call him Jacobin. Had it been otherwiſe, it might rather have been expected, as Frederick was no Jacobin, but a philoſopher, that we ſhould have heard him characteriſed as atheiſtical. We know that one of the univerſities, in the year 1683, condemned all the principles of liberty, for which we have ſince contended, becauſe they conſidered them as having a ſtrong and direct tendency to atheiſm.

[Mr. Fox then took a particular view of our diſpute with the maritime powers of the North, and condemned the conduct of Mr. Pitt and his colleagues.]

The right hon. gentleman chuſes to think we have repeated opinions ſo often that we are grown callous to their refutation. One of thoſe opinions related to the reſtoration of monarchy in France. I believe, I have often heard that ſtated to be the object of the war, but we never ſtated it as the *ſine qua non*; and the right hon. gentleman will not deny, that there is a difference between the two terms. But if we had ſo ſtated it, we ſhould not have been much out. When Bonaparte made, in a moſt dignified and conciliatory manner, his offer to negociate, what did you ſay to him? Reſtore the houſe of Bourbon; that is, go hang yourſelf, and then we'll tell you whether we will treat. Was this a *ſine qua non?* Bonaparte did not chuſe to adopt this mode of conduct, to drive himſelf from power, and, perhaps, loſe his life. It is ſingular; but he did not do this. I ſuppoſe he was not ſtrong enough to be magnanimous and polite. The expedition, however, to Cadiz, and other places, and the experience of two campaigns in Italy, have made you ſtrong enough to ſend to Bonaparte, to expreſs a wiſh to negociate. But is that the caſe? You may ſend an offer to Bonaparte now. He will have more true policy and real dignity than to anſwer you as you did him, though he might perhaps be juſtified, if any thing could juſtify the trifling with the happineſs of nations, in returning you ſuch an anſwer as you returned to him. But this war, it ſeems, has been a ſucceſsful one. A right hon. gentleman, who has had a principal ſhare in the conduct of the war, is a curious reaſoner, and I cannot wonder that ſuch a reaſoner ſhould have produced ſuch an effect; he ſays, let us conſider that the buſineſs of England in every war is to deſtroy the commerce of the enemy; now I think our buſineſs is to conſider how we may the ſooneſt bring our enemy to peace. But then he alludes to our naval ſucceſſes. Our naval ſucceſſes I attribute chiefly to the ſkill, to the good conduct, to the undaunted valour and ſpirit of our ſailors. To what do I attribute the failure of our military? Not to want of ſkill, not to want of valour in our army, but to an adminiſtration which did not know how to direct that valour, and that ſkill. But it is ſaid, there have been failures in other wars, and the right hon. gentleman has alluded to the loſs of Minorca. Whether that iſland was loſt by the miſconduct of the miniſters, or the troops, or the admiral, I will not ſay; but thus much I will ſay, on the part of a man for whom I feel the deepeſt gratitude, that that perſon did not reſiſt, but provoked inquiry. But there were other failures—there was a failure at Rochfort, an inquiry was alſo granted. How comes it, then, that this is the only war in which no inquiry has been granted? It muſt have ariſen from this cauſe; from the increaſe of confidence, and from the giving up more than our anceſtors did to the executive government. The right hon. gentleman had ſtated the increaſe of the national debt at one hundred and ſixty millions. He ſays, in reckoning the debt,

we are not to reckon what the income tax is mortgaged to pay off. I wiſh this were the caſe in private concerns. I ſhould like it as well as any man in the houſe. But what perſon does not feel the income tax? The country do feel it as the moſt burthenſome part of the debt. The argument founded upon the 20 millions of land-tax is a mere play upon the words. It is like a gentleman who owes 20,000l. and ſells all or part of his eſtate to pay it off! He owes nothing afterward, it is true, but are not his means and his income narrowed? With much more truth does the right hon. gentleman ſay, that what we apply to the ſinking fund muſt be deducted from the debt. But this muſt continue with a proportionate revenue. What we pay every year I ſtate at about 40,000,000. I add to that the ſum of 10,000,000, which we pay to the poors rate: this is the ſtate of the country, paying 50,000,000 annually. The right hon. gentleman eſtimated, rather ſanguinely as ſome thought, the land rental of the kingdom at 25,000,000. Surely, therefore, the ſituation of a nation paying double its whole land rental deſerves the moſt ſerious conſideration.

In ſpring, the ſupplementary militia was deſtroyed to gain a diſpoſable force. They were ſent to Holland. But we gained the naval force of Holland, and if my dates be right, we acquired it before the military enterpriſe began. The latter, however, failed, under the diſagreeable, I muſt not ſay, diſgraceful circumſtances of a convention with an inferior force. But we are told, that it ſucceeded in a third point of diverſion—Now, the object of a diverſion is with a ſmaller force to divert the attention, and to keep in play a larger force of the enemy. You landed, however, on a neck of land, and you could not, I affirm, have landed with more chance of being baffled by an inferior force. No wonder, therefore, that the enterpriſe failed. We find that the men were ſo unacquainted with their officers, that ſeven months afterward, the commander in chief ſays, it would take two months more to make them fit for ſervice. But this army returned in November. It was bad weather—ſo bad that the men could only not exerciſe, but could not get acquainted with their officers—while others were regaling with their friends at that ſeaſon, theſe men could not get acquainted with their officers till the thaw. Let us look at the other ſide of the queſtion. In ſome places France is milder than in England, but in no place is ſhe ſo much milder as to make ſo great a difference. We rejected the overture of Bonaparte, becauſe nothing but peace could keep him in his ſeat. Our refuſal, perhaps, warmed him, and kept out the cold. During theſe ſubſequent months, paſſed in ſuch nullity here, Bonaparte, from his exhauſted country, and from his alleged exhauſted reputation, formed an army, and when ſummer came he went to another froit, and carried his army over Alpine ſnows. The cold did not prevent him from paſſing them—he could do this, though Britiſh regiments could not be ſent in ſhips to the Mediterranean. The other letter is from ſir Charles Stuart. Am I to think our ally ſo ſtupid as not to wiſh for the acceſſion of 20,000 Britiſh troops? Was this the ſtate of things formerly? Would the duke of Marlborough and his troops have been deemed an incumbrance? Where is our reputation gone? The battle of Marengo came. Sir, I am not one of thoſe who deny that fortune has a great ſhare in the affairs of war: but, I muſt confeſs, that I never heard of a campaign in which fortune ſeemed to have leſs to do than in that. And now comes the convention of Hohenlingen, under circumſtances which the country ought never to forget. The emperor ſends a miniſter to Luneville to negociate, in conjunction with Great Britain. A naval armiſtice was demanded by France, which it was right, perhaps, to refuſe. But then a ſeparate treaty was propoſed. What was your reaſon for refuſing it? Was it from a principle of faith to the emperor? Did he aſk it? Was it not for his intereſt that we ſhould negociate at the ſame time he did? Well, ſir, after the convention of Hohenlinden expired, the war was renewed. And here I come to a notable inſtance of the difference between eloquence and wiſdom. The right honourable gentleman ſaid he would adviſe the emperor, as a ſpectator, to continue the conteſt. Againſt the prediction, however, of that gentleman, the emperor found that he had riſked much by the continuance of the war, and the country, with a ſottiſh ſtupidity, refuſed, upon a principle of faith, which was not exacted, to treat. Now mark the event. The emperor makes a ſeparate peace. All Europe was to be converted againſt France. The ſucceſs of the war has been, that nearly all Europe is againſt you, and that ſo far from maintaining our influence on the continent, the war which we had undertaken, to preſerve the balance of power, has ended in an event unexampled. A great continental peace has been concluded, including in it

Germany, Spain, and Italy, and this country, ſo far from taking the lead in it, is as much out of it as any of the pettieſt princes in Germany. This is the end of a war for eſtabliſhing reciprocal relations between the different powers.

Mr. Fox next proceeded to animadvert on the conduct of his majeſty's miniſters, on their repeated refuſals to treat for peace with France, and the haughty and ſcurrilous language in which they ſpoke of that truly great man now at the head of the French republic, raiſed by his wiſdom and valour. Did that great man refuſe inquiry, when his country was diſtracted at home, and menaced with the moſt formidable dangers from without? No. It was his policy to inquire into the extent of the evils by which his country was ſurrounded, in order to apply a vigour commenſurate to the extent of the miſchief, by which means he was able to ſurmount it, and ſubdue Europe to peace; and even now he was convinced that great man had a mind ſuperior to the narrow and vindictive policy which had guided the conduct of his majeſty's miniſters through the whole of the war, and above throwing any illiberal impediment in the way of pacification. Mr. Fox then went over the remaining topics of Mr. Pitt's ſpeech, to which he replied with his wonted ſpirit and ability. He concurred in the encomiums laviſhed by that gentleman on certain members of the new adminiſtration, particularly lord St. Vincent, to whoſe profeſſional character, as well as ability in his new department, he joined in every juſt praiſe; to the integrity and talents of the new chancellor of the exchequer, he alſo concurred in the panegyric of his predeceſſor; and had only to expreſs his ſurprize, that the right hon. gentleman could be induced to abandon a ſituation, which he had ſo long filled with honour and advantage, in order to aſſume another, where, in ſucceeding to the ſame meaſures profeſſed by his predeceſſor, he was ſo likely to forfeit the popularity he had ſo juſtly acquired. But as to the noble lord (Hawkeſbury), he had no doubt of his having been, as the right hon. member had ſtated in his panegyric, ten years in parliament, and a cloſe attendant on buſineſs. But he could not help thinking there ſeemed ſomething not very advantageous to the character and feelings of the noble lord, deſigned in his new appointment, by placing him in that peculiar ſituation which muſt render him the director—propoſer of a peace with that very French government, with whom he had ſo often declared it utterly impoſſible to treat, as a ſet of Jacobins and regicides; and, not content with the ordinary ſpirit of conducting the war, was for cutting the matter ſhort, by marching directly to Paris. This language of the noble lord, as well as thoſe illiberal epithets of 'Child of Jacobiniſm, and gaudy Puppet of its Principles,' too frequently uſed by others of the miniſterial members toward Bonaparte, Mr. Fox reprobated, as weak and reprehenſible, and ſuggeſted not an inapt ſimile for the new adminiſtration, as no leſs deſerving the appellation of *gaudy puppets*, moved only by wires held in other hands.

He next adverted to the ſubject of the union with Ireland, and aſked, what ſort of benefit were the people of England to expect from a meaſure which united them (if the language of miniſters deſerved credit) with a nation, the great maſs of whoſe inhabitants, near five millions in number, were diſaffected to the government, and could not be kept quiet without martial law, or rather by depriving them of all law? He dreaded this example, as leading to the adoption of martial law in this country, which he ſhould deprecate as the death of the Britiſh conſtitution; but with reſpect to Ireland, he muſt be convinced the fault was not theirs originally. There was no inſtance of a whole people diſaffected toward the government under which they lived, unleſs there was ſomething peculiarly and radically bad in that government. He knew the people of Ireland characteriſtically and intimately, many of them perſonally—he always thought and ſpoke of them with ſentiments of eſteem and admiration, becauſe he never knew nor heard of any people, whether in the lower or the higher orders, who, he was convinced, would be more grateful for protection, or more eaſily governed under a mild and liberal ſyſtem: and, with reſpect to the Catholics, though the right hon. gentleman denied that any pledge was given to them, yet he believed, it could not be denied, that promiſes was held out to them in what was, perhaps, improperly called emancipation. He concluded by ſupporting the motion.

Mr. Pitt ſaid a few words in explanation.

Mr. Addington intreated the indulgence of the houſe in a few words of reply to the hon. member who ſpoke laſt but one. The hon. member had thought fit to make ſome alluſions to him and his colleagues, and to aſſert that they ſtood pledged to

pledged to purſue the ſame meaſures as their predeceſſors.—But he could aſſure the hon. member and the houſe, that he was not pledged to ſupport or reject any ſet of meaſures, merely becauſe they were or were not thoſe of any ſet of men, nor did he feel himſelf bound by any principle, except that of an earneſt and honourable wiſh for the ſervice of his ſovereign, and the advantage of his country. With reſpect to the ſubject of peace with the enemy, he could aſſure the hon. member, his majeſty's miniſters were earneſtly diſpoſed to that deſirable object, and determined to oppoſe nothing on their parts unfair and unreaſonable to impede an event ſo devoutly to be wiſhed. They had no reaſon to imagine the enemy indiſpoſed for peace, or deſirous of throwing in its way any unſurmountable obſtacles. He could, therefore, aſſure the hon. gentleman, that in the indulgence of a hope ſo very congenial to his feelings, his majeſty's miniſters felt no diſpoſition to interpoſe any language of a heated or intemperate kind; but certainly they were firmly determined, however pacific their wiſhes, to liſten to no terms, derogatory to that pre-eminence of our navy, to which we owe our ſecurity and commercial proſperity.

Mr. Grey replied, and at half paſt four this morning the houſe divided,

Ayes 105; noes 291; majority 186.

Adjourned.

[To be continued.]

THE BRITISH MUSE.

ODE TO THE MOON.

By Rev. T. MAURICE, from his 'Poems.'

CYNTHIA, fair regent of yon azure ſpace,
Seize thy bright reins, and chaſe the lingering gloom;
Darkling I haſte to Stella's lov'd embrace,
Whoſe lips are roſes, and whoſe breath perfume,
As through the boundleſs wilderneſs I rove,
Beneath this robe no murd'rous fauchion gleams,
To ſtain with blood this unpolluted grove,
And blot the brightneſs of thy virgin beams:
Ah no! where dwells thy influence, mighty love,
No ſavage thoughts, like thoſe, the breaſt invade,
Thou canſt to pity the wild Arab move,
And wreſt from his fierce graſp the uplifted blade.
This boſom beats not with impure alarms,
But burns with fires as bright, as chaſte, as thine;
I pant to fold her in my bridal arms,
Looſe her light veſt, and call perfection mine.

TRANSLATION from BUCHANNAN.

By Mr. W. R. WAKE.

WHO's that boy with wings of dove?
'Tis, it is the God of love.
Say, who is his happy ſire?
'Tis the eyes' enlivening fire.
In what ſeaſon was his birth?
When gay ſpring revives the earth,
Where's his palace? Where's his home?
In the boſom's ſpacious dome.
To what nurſe is he conſign'd?
To gay youth of open mind.
Say, what ſweets his board equip?
Beauty cheek, and pleaſure's lip.
Who compoſe his lively court?
Wealthy eaſe and wanton ſport.
Why is warfare his delight?
Hope and fear urge him to fight.
Fears he Death's deſtructive ſway?
No, that ne'er creates diſmay.
In the circle of an hour
Oft this little ſprightly power
(Such is copious ſtore of lives)
Ten times dies—as oft revives.

THE CHAPLET.

By EDMUND SWIFT, Eſq.

OH yes, I will ſearch thro' the garden with care,
For Narciſſa the prime of its beauties I'll ſteal;
To bloom on her boſom, or twine in her hair,
And each leaf and each bud ſhall an emblem conceal.

But ſay, ſimple bard, can a flower aſſume
The charms to Narciſſa alone that belong?
In thy numbers the pride of the garden may bloom,
But its grace ſhe ſurpaſſes, and needs not thy ſong.

'Tis true—yet perhaps ſhe the gift will receive,
Nor deny it a place on her boſom to find;
For it ſeeks not to vie in the chaplet I weave,
With the grace of her form, or the charm of her mind.

The Hyacinth there ſhall its beauty diſplay,
That boſom's beſt emblem;—for poets have ſung
'Twas Affection's warm tear that enliven'd the clay,
Whence the ſad-drooping flower of tenderneſs ſprung.

The Cowſlip, enrob'd in her mantle of gold,
O'er the chaplet her bright bending breaſt ſhall incline;
For an heart dropping blood lies conceal'd in its fold,
And 'twill bloom to Narciſſa the record of mine.

And oh! in the wreath ſhould the Myrtle preſume
To intrude, and Narciſſa its verdure approve;
How ſweetly the chaplet 'twould deck with its bloom!
But vain is my hope—'tis the emblem of Love.

The Lilly, array'd in her ſnowy cymar,
On her boſom ſhall ſhine, than her boſom leſs pure;—
There Truth from her diadem dropt a bright ſtar,
And the gem with Narciſſa ſhall ever endure.

And ſhall not the Roſe in the chaplet be found,
The breaſt of thy favourite fair to adorn?
Ah no—for its beauty ſharp perils ſurround,
And far from Narciſſa I'd baniſh the thorn.

'Tis the flower of War:—and its white and its red
Have ſilver'd the banner, and crimſon'd the ſhield;
And ſons againſt ſires to battle have led,
And ſtain'd with the ſlaughter of brothers the field.

But the Olive its leaf more congenial ſhall lend,
That bids the wild ſpirit of enmity ceaſe;
And its verdure with Virtue's own Violet blend,
For ſtill may her breaſt be the manſion of Peace!

A SONG FOR SEVENTY.

I TOLD you, Mary, told you true,
If love to favour had a claim,
That all its wiſhes warm'd my breaſt,
And you were ſtill the conſtant theme;
I told you, then, if mine you were,
The pride of rank you muſt forego,
And all the pomp of dreſs reſign,
For wealth I had not to beſtow:
And, Mary, thou didſt not reprove,
But bade me hope, and bade me love.

O, Mary! on thy lovely neck
The diamond ſhone with ſweeten'd glance,
And graceful was the ſilken robe
That mark'd thy motions in the dance;
And joyous were the pompous crowd
Thy birth entitled thee to join:
Yet pomp, and wealth, and friends, you left,
To be acknowledg'd, Mary, mine;
Thou, lovely, didſt my ſuit approve,
And bade me hope, and bade me love.

'Tis long now, Mary, ſince we met:
Stiff are my joints, and hoar my hair;
Ev'n *your* cheek, too, the wrinkles mark,
And yet, my love, you're wond'rous fair;
And were the wrinkles ſtronger ſtill,
While accents cheerful grac'd your tongue,
How could I think, but on thoſe ſmiles
And accents that adorn'd thee young;
When thou, love, didſt my ſuit approve,
And bade me hope, and bade me love.

How often, Mary, has my heart
With ſecret rapture beat thy praiſe,
While on your breaſt our infants hung,
I mark'd their mother's tender gaze;
And ſtill thy lover true is proud,
Old as he is, he's proud to ſee
The youngſters anxious for thy love,
Come fondling round their gran'am's knee:
O bleſt the day, you did approve,
And bade me hope, and bade me love.

O Mary! much I owe thy care,
Life's beſt of bleſſings ſtill you gave:
But now our various duties paſt,
Our neareſt proſpect is the grave:
Yet, conſcious of a virtuous life,
We ſhrink not from the ſolemn ſcene;
Sigh, ſigh, we muſt, that we ſhall part,
But ſoon, my love, we'll meet again,
Where endleſs pleaſures we ſhall prove,
Nor ever, ever ceaſe to love.

ADDRESS

TO THE

MEMBERS of the LITERARY FUND,

Inſtituted for the Relief of diſtreſſed Au-thors, their Widows and Children, on the Anniverſary at Freemaſons' Hall, April 24th, 1800.

By JOHN JOSEPH STOCKDALE.

PATRONS of drooping Science in diſtreſs,
Whoſe genial hearts expand, I now addreſs:
Uplift the eye, o'erchargʼd with Pity's tear,
Behold! proud Albion's Genius hovering here.
Benignant ſmiles, her placid brow adorn,
To ſee, from want, her deareſt offspring torn;
View ſilent worth, from untold horrors, riſe,
And watch their grateful praiſe peal thro' the ſkies.
Methinks a tear yet checks Britannia's ſmile,
And half reproves the Fair * of this our Iſle.
Delay no more, with us in concert move,
To aid with ſtrength the cauſe ye all muſt love.
To Heav'n, for thee, thou wide extended band,
Their prayers aſcend, encompaſs all the land;
Nor, unavailing, ſhall thoſe pray'rs be found,
When, trumpet-call'd, the thunders rend the ground;
Thy boon return'd in tenfold richer ſtore,
A Crown eternal waits thee evermore;
A Throne, whoſe radiance nought can e'er efface,
Than coſtly gems more rich—a throne of grace!
So, mark the bonds theſe kindred acts ſupply,
When Gallia's raging hoſts thy power defy:
See! myriads to the tented field advance,
The muſket level, thruſt th' unerring lance—
For thee, their childrens' ſons ſhall ſcour the main,
Shall bend the ſtubborn necks of Holland, Spain,
Far ſpread the terror of inſulted pride,
And o'er the briny waves majeſtic ride.
Their Sires, approving, urge the mortal fight,
While the raſh foe ſinks into endleſs night—
Benignly reſcued from the darkſome caves,
Where ghaſtly Want in frantic ſorrow raves;
Th' Hiſtoric Muſe, to lateſt times, ſhall tell
Where Britain's ſword, by Juſtice guided, fell;
When valiant Howe, St. Vincent, Duncan, led
Againſt the hoſtile fleets, its Navies dread:
Curb'd the rude arrogance of foreign pride,
And powers united, e'en with ſcorn, defi'd.
When Nelſon high the Red-croſs banners roſe
Upon the ruins of his Gallic foes:
To God alone aſcrib'd the battle's fate,
Which on his brow, a laurell'd trophy, ſate:
Bid Nilus' ſons, with courage, boldly ſtand,
Upheld by Albion's heav'n-protected hand:
To Acre's miry walls his influence ſpread,
And bade the Creſcent rear its drooping head.
A Chriſtian Knight inſpires the Iſhmaelian throng,
Avenger dire of bondag'd Egypt's wrong.
Thus future ages to thy cares will own
A faithful record of this Iſle's renown:
Drawn from exertions to preſerve its laws
'Gainſt Faction's banners—ſtrengthen Europe's cauſe.
By Union, cloſe cement the Empire's pow'r;
New vigour feel from each progreſſive hour.
Theſe ends attain'd, let warring horrors ceaſe;
Crown our lov'd King with glory, honour, peace.

HYMN

From an INSCRIPTION on a MUMMY.

By Mr. COLLIER.

STROPHE.

FAREWELL! and may the friendly gate
Of bright Oſiris joyfully receive
Thy winged ſoul, which haſtes to leave
Its earthly load to meet a purer ſtate!

* At this time the names of nine ladies only were entered among the ſubſcribers to ſo laudable an inſtitution. It would be cruel to ſuppoſe they do not feel intereſted in its ſucceſs.

May the three-fold pow'rs, whoſe charge
Is fix'd to guide th' irrevocable barge,
Convey thee ſafe, with gentle hand,
Where the decrees of fate command!
May He, who walks with ſtep unſeen
Thro' vaſt Creation's paths, on thee beſtow
A life, unlike to that which mortals know,
Unbounded and ſerene.
O Apis! and thou ray divine
Who giv'ſt the ſun's prolific beam to ſhine!
Accept our pray'r,
And let thy care
Thro' every change, attract his ſteps to turn
To that celeſtial urn,
From whoſe tranſparent, unexhauſted ſource,
Above, below, in earth, in heav'n,
Wherever light or life is giv'n,
The ſtream of bleſſing rolls its ample courſe:
There, watch'd by Hemphta's ſleepleſs eye,
Let Contemplation's ſilent pow'r
Seraphic ſlumbers round him ſhow'r,
And charm his ſoul with fancied extacy;
Then let him wake, and, with aſtoniſh'd view,
Find, 'mid the bleſſed choirs, Sleep's glowing image true.

ANTISTROPHE.

Still may he live the life above,
In mingled eſſence with his God ſupreme,
Nor Contemplation drop the theme
Of truth and mercy, gratitude and love!
Far be all the pow'rs malign,
Who dread the ſight of Thoth's terrific ſign;
The croſs, with potent circle crown'd,
The myſtic hieralph profound.—
But ſee! they ſtop—they fear—they fly—
Loud in their ears the name portentous rings—
Huſh'd is the ruſtling of their murky wings,
Drown'd their funereal cry,
When ev'ry ſtrain of mortal clay
Thy intellectual vaſe hath purg'd away,
Link'd to the chain
Which holds the train
Of friendly ſpirits in thy purer ſkies,
Great Hemphta, let him riſe.
May no inferior joys ſeduce his view
From thoſe which, in his bliſsful ſphere,
Enchant his eye, delight his ear,
Nor taint the fragrance of thy heav'nly dew!
Still may his ſoul keep watchful guard;
And, gaining wings of firmer flight,
Aſpire to ſome ſuperior height,
Some nearer zone of more intenſe reward—
Wings which, extended wide, in bright array,
With endleſs motion move, nor feel their ſtrength decay.

EPODE.

Let ev'ry pow'r of his enlighten'd ſoul
In beatific trance be join'd
To that ſupreme tranſcendent mind,
His ardent center, his triumphant goal;
Let no earthly ſtains ariſe
From ſoul deſire of that which dies,
The reptiles' abject prey,
To cloud the path, or dim the fire
Which blazes in the conic ſpire
Of Heav'n's deſcending ray!
But in the dark abyſs of time,
When round its baſe the pyramid has roll'd,
And new-born ages their long train unfold.
If to this earth's corrupted clime
He muſt return, by Fate's beheſt,
Oh! free from each polluted ſtain,
May this his dark receſs remain,
And friendly pow'rs protect the hour of reſt.

NAVAL INTELLIGENCE.

[From the London Gazette.]

Admiralty-office, April 7.

Copy of a Letter from Rear-admiral Duckworth, Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's Ships and Veſſels at the Leeward Iſlands, to Evan Nepean, eſq. dated Martinique, February 10.

Sir,

HAVING learnt, from the arrival of the Calcutta, on the 12th ult. that a convoy might be ſoon expected, I diſpatched all the ſquadron within my reach to cruiſe to windward of Barbadoes for its protection, which has eventually proved fortunate; for the particulars reſpecting it, I ſhall refer you to captain Bradby's letter of the 6th inſtant, herewith tranſmitted; as alſo to the letters of captain Manby, of the Bourdelois, of the 16th of January, and 2d of this month, on which he writes moſt fully. I muſt beg you to call the attention of my lords commiſſioners of the admiralty to the meritorious conduct of Mr. Barrowes, commander of the ſhip Jupiter, bound to Jamaica, who, after he had loſt convoy, collected more than ſixty ſail, and made ſuch a diſpoſition of the largeſt ſhips for the protection of the whole, as evidently deterred the ſmall ſquadron

afterward brought to action by the Bourdelois from attacking them; and by that judicious and public ſpirited ſtep, all but thoſe which branched off for Surinam, &c. arrived ſafe at Barbadoes.

I am, ſir, &c.
J. T. DUCKWORTH.

Extract of a Letter from Captain Bradby, Commander of his Majeſty's Ship Andromeda, to Rear-admiral Duckworth, dated Martinique, February 6.

Incloſed are two letters from captain Manby to me, from which the ſervice he has rendered to the different iſlands, by deſtroying a ſquadron ſent out by Victor Hughes, for the interception of the outward-bound convoy, ſpeaks for itſelf.

His Majeſty's Sloop Bourdelois, Jan. 16,
Sir, off Teneriffe.

On the 8th inſtant, off Palma, in a calm, I diſpatched two boats under the orders of lieutenant Barrie, in purſuit of a ſtrange ſail in the SE; after a fatiguing row of fourteen hours, lieutenant Barrie, at two P. M. with only one boat being up with the chaſe, boarded her with great gallantry, although oppoſed by ten Frenchmen, who kept up a ſmart fire from four four-pounders; ſhe proved to be the Adventure of London, one of the convoy which had parted company in the firſt gale of wind; the French prize-maſter was wounded by a cutlaſs, the only blood ſpilt on the occaſion.

Gaining information from the Adventure, that on the ſame day ſhe was captured by the Mouche privateer, of Bourdeaux; the Mouche likewiſe captured a valuable copper-bottomed ſhip, bound to Barbadoes; and as both veſſels had orders to proceed to Santa Cruz, in Teneriffe, I conſidered it my duty to puſh for that port, and by plying hard with the ſweeps all the 9th, I arrived off Santa Cruz on the morning of the 10th, when I had the pleaſing ſatisfaction of reſcuing the abovementioned Britiſh ſhip from the hands of the enemy; ſhe proved to be the Aurora, of London.

I have the honour to be, &c.
T. MANBY.

Capt. Bradby, Andromeda.

His Majeſty's Ship Bourdelois, Carliſle
Sir, Bay, Barbadoes, Feb. 1.

Three days ago, being on the ſtation you ordered me to cruiſe for the protection of our ſcattered convoy, I acquaint you, for the information of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, that at noon three ſail were deſcried to windward evidently in chaſe of us, which I ſoon diſcovered to be an enemy's ſquadron, conſiſting of two large brigs and a ſchooner:—having ſhortened ſail, enabled them to be well up with us at ſunſet, when I wore round to give them battle; at ſix I had the honour of bringing the largeſt brig to cloſe action at about ten yards diſtance, but was not ſo fortunate with the other veſſels, who fought very ſhy on the occaſion, on obſerving we were enabled to fight both ſides at once; thirty minutes of cloſe carronade with my near opponent completely ſilenced him, when he hailed that he had ſtruck, and lowered his topſails, when his companions made ſail from us; but I think I can ſafely aver they are ſufficiently damaged to ſpoil their cruiſe. My firſt lieutenant, Mr. Robert Barrie, on taking poſſeſſion of the prize, found her to be a remarkably fine French national corvette, called La Curieuſe, pierced for twenty guns, but only eighteen long nine-pounders mounted, 168 men, and commanded by captain G. Radelet; ſent out from Cayenne, twenty-eight days ago by Victor Hughes, with this ſquadron, to intercept the outward-bound Weſt India fleet. With real concern I acquaint you that we had one man killed and ſeven wounded in the action; but from the abilities and attention of Mr. G. Roddam, my ſurgeon, I truſt the latter are likely to do well: lieutenant Barrie forms one of the number, but diſdained to quit his quarters. Mr. J. Jones, maſter's mate, and Mr. J. Lions, midſhipman, are included in this liſt.

The killed and wounded in the corvette amounted to near fifty, her deck, fore and aft, being covered with the dying and the dead. The French captain ſurvived but a few hours, having loſt both his legs, and many of the priſoners were in an equal pitiable ſtate.

A melancholy and painful taſk is now impoſed on me, to relate the ſad cataſtrophe attending this capture, which, after being more than an hour in our poſſeſſion, was found to be rapidly ſinking. In conſequence of her innumerable ſhot holes; every exertion was made to preſerve her; but, alas! at eight, ſhe foundered cloſe beſide us. I had, ſome time previouſly to this event, ordered every body to quit her; but Britiſh humanity, while ſtriving to extricate the wounded Frenchmen from deſtruction, weighed ſo forcibly with Mr.

Archibald Montgomery, and twenty brave followers, that they perſevered in this meritorious ſervice until the veſſel ſunk under them. The floating wreck, I rejoice to ſay, buoyed up many from deſtruction; but with ſorrow I mention Mr. Frederick Spence, and Mr. Auckland, two promiſing young gentlemen, with five of my gallant crew, unfortunately periſhed. The delay occaſioned by this unhappy event, ſecuring 120 priſoners, knotting the rigging, and repairing ſails, detained me until eleven, before I could purſue the flying enemy, which, I aſſure you, was done with all alacrity, but without ſucceſs, as the night favoured their eſcape.

I cannot conclude this account of my proceedings without informing you how highly I approve of the conduct of lieutenant Robert Barrie, lieutenant James Alexander Gordon, Mr. Mac Cleverty, the maſter, and Mr. Montgomery, my acting lieutenant.

The proceedings of warrant and petty officers give me every ſatisfaction: and I have not words to offer ſufficiently in the praiſe of the ſhip's company for their ſteady obedience to my orders in not waſting a ſingle ſhot; I truſt it will not be deemed too aſſuming in my recommending my firſt lieutenant, Mr. Robert Berrie, to the notice of the lords commiſſioners of the admiralty, as an officer highly worthy of advancement.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) T. MANBY.

N. B. Allow me to ſubjoin the ſtatement of the enemy's force, and to mention, that the only capture made by this ſquadron was the Suſan brig, of Halifax, bound to Surinam, which they burnt.

La Curieuſe, of 390 tons, 18 nine-pounders, 168 men, not two years old, with 34 feet beam, and 90 feet keel, commanded by captain George Radelet.

La Mutine, of 300 tons, 16 long ſix-pounders, 256 men, commanded by captain J. Raybann.

L'Eperance ſchooner, mounting ſix four-pounders, 52 men, commanded by captain Haymond.

J. T. DUCKWORTH.

Admiralty-office, April 11.

Copy of a Letter from Captain Sir Edward Hamilton, of his Majeſty's Ship Trent, in Cawſand Bay, the 7th of April, to the Right Hon. Lord Amelius Beauclerk, Captain of his Majeſty's Ship Fortune.

IN obedience to your ſignal, the chaſe was continued until dark, at which time, being becalmed among the rocks of the iſles of Brehat, I anchored, and the next morning, (the 3d inſtant) obſerving a large ſhip with French colours, under the protection of a cutter and lugger privateers, making ſail with the flood from the anchorage of Brehat to Plampoul, the boats were immediately diſpatched, under the command of lieutenant Chamberlayne, having under his orders Mr. Scallon, ſecond lieutenant; Mr. Bellamy, third; Mr. Hoſkins, maſter; Mr. Taite, marine officer, &c. The enemy ſeemed, at firſt, determined to reſiſt, and defend their veſſels, and ſent many boats from the ſhore to their aſſiſtance, who, with the lugger, took the ſhip in tow, but on the very ſpirited and near approach of the Trent's, the lugger and boats caſt off the tow, and after maintaining a ſevere conflict, aided by a continued fire from five batteries, they were at length ſubdued and chaſed on the rocks; after which the ſhip, in the face of open day, was moſt gallantly boarded by the firſt lieutenant and marine officer, who, I am ſorry to ſay, loſt his right leg; and the very meritorious and ſpirited zeal, with which all the officers and men were animated on this enterpriſe, reflects on them the higheſt honour.

The ſhip appears Engliſh built, about 300 tons, with a cargo of corn, and various other articles; but not having made any priſoners, further particulars are unknown.

Incloſed, I return you a liſt of killed and wounded; that of the enemy could not be exactly aſcertained; two were killed on board the ſhip and ſeveral were drowned: the ſtate of the prize requiring protection into port, and the wind being eaſterly, I judged it prudent to put into this place.

I am, ſir, &c.
E. HAMILTON.

Liſt of killed and wounded.

Two ſeamen, killed; one marine officer, wounded.

E. HAMILTON, Captain.

Admiralty-office, April 25.

Extract of a Letter from Captain Dixon, Commander of his Majeſty's Ship Genereux, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated at Port Mahon, the 16th ult.

HEREWITH I have the honour to tranſmit copies of letters relative to the capture of the French frigate, L'Africaine, by captain Barlow, of his majeſty's ſhip Phœbe.

Genereux, Port Mahon, March 10.

My Lord,

I have the ſatisfaction to encloſe a letter from captain Barlow, of his majeſty's ſhip Phœbe, for your lordſhip's information.

This very gallant and well-fought action, as related in captain Barlow's letter, and much more ſtrongly marked in the hull of the French ſhip, warrants me in ſaying, that more ſkill or effective gunnery were never diſplayed in any combat than in the preſent inſtance.

I have the honour, &c.

MANLEY DIXON.

Right hon. Lord Keith, K. B. &c.

Phœbe, at Sea, twenty leagues Eaſt of Gibraltar, Feb. 20.

My Lord,

I have the honour to inform your lordſhip that, yeſterday about four o'clock in the afternoon, his majeſty's ſhip under my command being about two leagues to the eaſtward of Gibraltar, I diſcovered one of the enemy's ſhips under Ceuta, ſteering with a crowd of ſail to the eaſtward: I had the good fortune to bring her to a cloſe action about half paſt ſeven the ſame evening, which continued within piſtol-ſhot with unremitting fury, about two hours, the enemy reſolutely oppoſing the animated and ſkilful exertions of my brave officers and men, until his ſhip was almoſt a wreck, five feet water in her hold, her guns diſmounted, and literally encumbered with dead, the number of which amounted to 200, and of wounded to 143.

She proves to be the French frigate L'Africaine, of forty-four guns, viz. twenty-ſix eighteen-pounders on her main deck, and eighteen nine-pounders on her quarter deck and forecaſtle, a very fine ſhip, about three years old, under the orders of the chief of diviſion Saunier, whoſe broad pendant was flying, and who (with many principal officers both of the troops and of the marines) was ſlain in the action, and commanded by captain Majendie, who is among the wounded.

At the commencement of the action ſhe had 715 men, viz. 400 troops and artificers of various deſcriptions, under the command of general Desfourneaux, and a crew of 315 officers and ſeamen. Alſo, ſix braſs field pieces, ſeveral thouſand ſtand of arms, ammunition, and implements of agriculture. She ſailed from Rochefort, on the 13th inſtant, in company with a frigate, from which ſhe parted on the following day in a gale of wind.

So tremendous and deciſive has been the effect of the fire of the Phœbe in this conteſt, that I muſt regret the inability of my pen, to do juſtice to the merits of thoſe who directed it. It has been my duty on a former occaſion to report to their lordſhips the meritorious conduct of my firſt lieutenant Holland, and the lieutenants Bedford and Heyward; lieut. Weaver, of the marines; Mr. Griffiths, the maſter; the warrant and petty officers, and the whole of the ſhip's company, are entitled to all the commendation in the power of their commander to beſtow.

My ſatisfaction in relating comparatively the ſmall loſs we have ſuſtained, is more eaſily imagined than deſcribed, as it amounts only to one ſeaman, killed; two officers and ſeamen, wounded; our damages are chiefly in maſts, yards, ſails, and rigging, the greateſt part of which are rendered unſerviceable.

I incloſe a copy of the French commander's report of the number killed and wounded on board L'Africaine, with the names of the officers, and

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) ROBERT BARLOW.

To Admiral the right hon. Lord Keith.

Liſt of killed and wounded on Board his Majeſty's Ship Phœbe.

Samuel Hayes, ſeaman, killed; two officers, and ten ſeamen, wounded.

Names of Officers wounded, but ſince recovered.

Lieutenant Holland and Mr. Griffiths, maſter.

P. S. I have reaſon to believe Egypt to have been the deſtination of the force under the orders of general Defourneaux and commodore Saunier.

SHIPS captured from the ENEMY.

LE Premier Conſul, 14 guns, by the Dryad.

Two ſhips, four brigs, three bombards, two ſettes, and four tartans, by the Mercury.

La Sans Pareille, 18 guns, by the Mercury.

St. Franciſco la Paula, two guns, and St. Joſef, 14 guns, by the Netley.

La Vengeance, 10 guns, by the Gannet.

El Reyna Louiſa, two guns, by the Hind.

L'Adelaide, three guns, by the Pigmy.

Le Poiſſon Volant, 14 guns, by the Stag.

La Maſcarade, 12 guns, by the Fortunée.

Le Heros, 14 guns, by the Atalante.

Le Brave, 14 guns, by the Arethuſa.

L'Antichriſt, 14 guns, by the Favourite.

COPENHAGEN.

London Gazette Extraordinary.

Admiralty-office, April 25.

CAPT. Otway, of his Majeſty's ſhip the London, arrived in town this morning with diſpatches from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Commander in Chief of a ſquadron of his Majeſty's ſhips employed on a particular ſervice, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. dated on board the London, in Copenhagen Roads, the 6th inſt. of which the following are copies:

Sir,

You will be pleaſed to acquaint the lords commiſſioners of the Admiralty, that ſince my letter of the 23d of March, no opportunity of wind offered for going up the Sound until the 25th, when the wind ſhifted in a moſt violent ſquall from the S.W. to the N.W. and North, and blew with ſuch violence, and with ſo great a ſea, as to render it impoſſible for any ſhip to have weighed her anchor. The wind and ſea were even ſo violent as to oblige many ſhips to let go a ſecond anchor to prevent them from driving, notwithſtanding they were riding with two cables an end; and, by the morning, the wind veered again to the ſouthward of the weſt.

On the 30th laſt month the wind having come to the northward, we paſſed into the Sound with the fleet, but not before I had aſſured myſelf of the hoſtile intentions of the Danes to oppoſe our paſſage, as the papers marked No. 1, 2, 3, and 4, will prove; after this intercourſe, there could be no doubt remaining of their determination to reſiſt.

After anchoring about five or ſix miles from the iſland of Huin, I reconnoitered, with vice admiral lord Nelſon, and rear admiral Graves, the formidable line of ſhips, radeaus, pontoons, galleys, fire-ſhips, and gun-boats, flanked and ſupported by extenſive batteries on the two iſlands called the Crowns; the largeſt of which was mounted with from 50 to 70 pieces of cannon; theſe were again commanded by two ſhips of 70 guns, and a large frigate in the inner road of Copenhagen; and two 64 gun ſhips (without maſts) were moored on the flat, on the ſtarboard ſide of the entrance into the arſenal.

The day after, the wind being ſoutherly, we again examined their poſition, and came to the reſolution of attacking them from the ſouthward.

Vice admiral lord Nelſon having offered his ſervices for conducting the attack, had, ſome days before we entered the Sound, ſhifted his flag to the Elephant; and after having examined and buoyed the outer channel of the middle ground, his lordſhip proceeded with the twelve ſhips of the line named in the margin*, all the frigates, bombs, fire-ſhips, and all the ſmall veſſels, and that evening anchored off Draco Point, to make his diſpoſition for the attack, and wait for the wind to the ſouthward.

It was agreed between us, that the remaining ſhips with me ſhould weigh at the ſame moment his lordſhip did, and menace the Crown batteries, and the four ſhips of the line that lay at the entrance of the arſenal; as alſo to cover our diſabled ſhips as they came out of action.

I have now the honour to incloſe a copy of vice admiral lord Nelſon's report to me of the action of the 2d inſt. His lordſhip has ſtated ſo fully the whole of his proceedings on that day, as only to leave me the opportunity to teſtify my entire acquieſcence and teſtimony of the bravery and intrepidity with which the action was conducted throughout the line.

Were it poſſible for me to add any thing to the well-earned renown of lord Nelſon, it would be by aſſerting, that his exertions, great as they have heretofore been, never were carried to a higher pitch of zeal for his country's ſervice.

I have only to lament that the ſort of attack, confined within an intricate and narrow paſſage, excluded the ſhips particularly under my command from the opportunity of exhibiting their valour: but I can, with great truth aſſert, that the ſame ſpirit and zeal animated the whole of the fleet; and I truſt that the conteſt in which we are engaged will, on ſome future day, afford them an occaſion of ſhowing that the whole were inſpired with the ſame ſpirit, had the field been ſufficiently extenſive to have brought it into action.

It is with the deepeſt concern I mention the loſs of captain Moſſe and Riou, two very brave and gallant officers, and whoſe loſs, as I am well informed, will be ſenſibly felt by the families they have left be-

* Elephant, Defiance, Monarch, Bellona, Edgar, Ruſſel, Ganges, Glatton, Iſis, Agamemnon, Polyphemus, Ardent.

hind them; the former, a wife and children; the latter, an aged mother.

From the known gallantry of ſir Thomas Thompſon on former occaſions, the naval ſervice will have to regret the loſs of the future exertions of that brave officer, whoſe leg was ſhot off.

For all other particulars I beg leave to refer their lordſhips to capt. Otway, who was with lord Nelſon in the latter part of the action, and able to anſwer any queſtions that may be put to him. A return of the killed and wounded you will receive herewith.

I have the honour to be, &c.

H. PARKER.

P. S. The promotions and appointments that have taken place on this occaſion will be ſent by the next opportunity that offers; but I cannot cloſe this without acquainting their lordſhips, that capt. Moſſe being killed very early in the action, lieut. John Yelland continued it with the greateſt ſpirit and good conduct; I muſt, therefore, in juſtice to his merit, beg leave to recommend him to their lordſhips' favour.

No. I.

London, in the Categat, March 27.

From the hoſtile tranſaction of the court of Denmark, ſending away his Britannic majeſty's chargé d'affaires, the commander in chief of his majeſty's fleet is anxious to know what the determination of the Daniſh court is, and whether the commanding officer of Cronenberg caſtle has received orders to fire upon the Britiſh fleet as they paſs into the Sound, as he muſt deem the firing of the firſt gun a declaration of war on the part of Denmark.

(Signed) HYDE PARKER.

TRANSLATION. No. II.

ANSWER.

Cronberg, March 28.

In anſwer to the admiral's honoured letter, I have to inform him, that no orders are given to fire upon the Engliſh fleet; an expreſs is gone to Copenhagen, and ſhould any orders be ſent, I ſhall immediately ſend an officer on board to inform the admiral.

(Signed) STRICKER, Governor.

TRANSLATION, No. III.

Cronberg caſtle, 28th March, 1801.

In anſwer to your excellency's letter, which I did not receive till the following day, at half paſt eight, I have the honour to inform you, that his majeſty, the king of Denmark, did not ſend away the chargé d'affaires, but that upon his own demand he obtained a paſſport.

As a ſoldier, I cannot meddle with politics; but I am not at liberty to ſuffer a fleet, whoſe intention is not yet known, to approach the guns of the caſtle which I have the honour to command.

In caſe your excellency ſhould think proper to make any propoſals to his majeſty the king of Denmark, I wiſh to be informed thereof, before the fleet approaches nearer to the caſtle. An explicit anſwer is deſired.

(Signed) STRICKER.

ANSWER, No. IV.

On board the London, 29th March, 1801, one A.M.

Sir,

In anſwer to your excellency's note juſt now received, the underſigned has only to reply, that, finding the intentions of the court of Denmark to be hoſtile againſt his Britannic majeſty, he regards the anſwer as a declaration of war, and therefore, agreeable to his inſtructions, can no longer refrain from hoſtilities, however reluctant it may be to his feelings: but at the ſame time will be ready to attend to any propoſals of the court of Denmark for reſtoring the former amity and friendſhip which has ſo many years ſubſiſted between the two courts.

(Signed) H. PARKER.

His Excellency the Governor of Cronberg Caſtle.

Elephant, off Copenhagen, April 3.

Sir,

In obedience to your directions to report the proceedings of the ſquadron named in the margin*, which you did me the honour to place under my command; I beg leave to inform you, that having, by the aſſiſtance of that able officer capt. Riou, and the unremitting exertions of capt. Briſbane, and the maſters of the Amazon and Cruiſer, in particular, buoyed the channel of the outer deep, and the poſition of the middle ground, the ſquadron paſſed in ſafety, and anchored off Draco, the evening of the 1ſt; and that yeſterday morning I made the ſignal for the ſquadron to weigh, and to engage the Daniſh line, conſiſting of ſix ſail of the line, eleven floating batteries, mounting from twenty-ſix 24-pounders, to eighteen 18-

* Elephant, Defiance, Monarch, Bellona, Edgar, Ruſſel, Ganges, Glatton, Iſis, Agamemnon, Polyphemus, Ardent, Amazon, Deſirée, Blanche, Alcmene; ſloops, Dart, Arrow, Wezer, and Harpy; fire ſhips, Zephyr and Otter; bombs, Recovery, Sulphur, Hecla, Exploſion, Zebra, Terror, and Volcano.

pounders, and one bomb-ſhip, beſide ſchooner gun-veſſels.

The bomb-ſhip and ſchooner gun-veſſels made their eſcape, the other 17 ſail are ſunk, burnt, or taken, being the whole of the Daniſh line to the ſouthward of the Crown Iſlands, after a battle of four hours.

From the very intricate navigation, the Bellona and Ruſſel unfortunately grounded, but although not in the ſituation aſſigned them, yet ſo placed as to be of great ſervice. The Agamemnon could not weather the ſhoal of the middle, and was obliged to anchor; but not the ſmalleſt blame can be attached to captain Fancourt; it was an event to which all the ſhips were liable. Theſe accidents prevented the extenſion of our line by the three ſhips before mentioned, who would, I am confident, have ſilenced the Crown Iſlands, the two outer ſhips in the harbour's mouth, and prevented the heavy loſs in the Defiance and Monarch, and which unhappily threw the gallant and good capt. Riou, (to whom I had given the command of the frigates and ſloops named in the margin*, to aſſiſt in the attack of the ſhips at the harbour's mouth) under a very heavy fire; the conſequence has been the death of capt. Riou, and many brave officers and men in the frigates and ſloops.

The bombs were directed and took their ſtations abreaſt of the Elephant, and threw ſome ſhells into the arſenal.

Capt. Roſe, who volunteered his ſervices to direct the gun-brigs, did every thing that was poſſible to get them forward, but the current was too ſtrong for them to be of ſervice during the action; but not the leſs merit is due to capt. Roſe, and, I believe, all the officers and crews of the gun-brigs, for their exertions.

The boats of thoſe ſhips of the fleet, who were not ordered on the attack, afforded us every aſſiſtance; and the officers and men who were in them merit my warmeſt approbation.

The Deſirée took her ſtation in raking the ſouthermoſt Daniſh ſhip of the line, and performed the greateſt ſervice.

The action began at five minutes paſt ten. The van, led by capt. George Murray, of the Edgar, who ſet a noble example of intrepidity, which was as well followed up by every captain, officer, and man in the ſquadron.

It is my duty to ſtate to you the high and diſtinguiſhed merit and gallantry of rear admiral Graves.

To capt. Foley, who permitted me the honour of hoiſting my flag in the Elephant, I feel under the greateſt obligations; his advice was neceſſary on many and important occaſions during the battle.

I beg leave to expreſs how much I feel indebted to every captain, officer, and man, for their zeal and diſtinguiſhed bravery on this occaſion. The hon. col. Stewart did me the favour to be on board the Elephant, and himſelf, with every officer and ſoldier under his orders, ſhared with pleaſure the toils and dangers of the day.

The loſs in ſuch a battle has naturally been very heavy. Among many other brave officers and men who were killed, I have with ſorrow to place the name of capt. Moſſe, of the Monarch, who has left a wife and ſix children to lament his loſs; and, among the wounded, that of capt. ſir Thomas B. Thompſon, of the Bellona. I have the honour to be, &c.

NELSON and BRONTE.

Liſt of the killed and wounded in the attack on the enemy's line of defence, batteries, &c. on the 2d of April, 1801.

Edgar—24 ſeamen, 2 marines, 3 ſoldiers of the 49th regiment, killed; 79 ſeamen, 17 marines, 8 ſoldiers of the 49th regiment, wounded.—Total 135.

Monarch—35 ſeamen, 11 marines, 8 ſoldiers of the 49th regiment, killed; 101 ſeamen, 34 marines, 20 ſoldiers of the 40th regiment, wounded.—Total 210.

Bellona—9 ſeamen, 2 marines, killed; 48 ſeamen, 10 marines, 3 ſoldiers, wounded—Total 74.

Defiance—17 ſeamen, 3 marines, 2 ſoldiers, killed; 34 ſeamen, 5 marines, 7 ſoldiers, wounded.—Total 69.

Iſis—22 ſeamen, 4 marines, 2 ſoldiers of the rifle corps, killed; 69 ſeamen, 13 marines, 2 ſoldiers of the rifle corps, wounded.—Total 112.

Amazon—10 ſeamen, 1 marine, killed; 16 ſeamen, 5 marines, wounded.—Total 32.

Glatton—17 killed, 34 wounded.—Total 51.

Deſirée—3 wounded.

Blanche—6 ſeamen, 1 marine, killed; 7 ſeamen, 2 marines, wounded.—Total 16.

Polyphemus—4 ſeamen, 1 marine, killed; 80 ſeamen, 4 marines, wounded.—Total 29.

Elephant—4 ſeamen, 3 marines, 1 ſoldier of the rifle corps, killed; 8 ſeamen,

† Blanche, Alcmene, Dart, Arrow, Zephyr, and Outer.

1 marine, 2 ſoldiers of the rifle corps, wounded.—Total 89.

Alcmene——5 ſeamen, killed; 12 ſeamen, 2 marines, wounded.—Total 19.

Dart—2 killed; 1 wounded.—Total 3.

Ganges—5 killed; 1 miſſing—Total 6.

Ruſſel—5 ſeamen, 1 marine, wounded.—Total 6.

Ardent—29 ſeamen and marines, killed; 64 ſeamen and marines, wounded.—Total 93.

Officers killed.

Edgar—Edmund Johnſon, firſt lieutenant; lieut. Benjamin Spencer, marines.

Defiance—George Gray, lieutenant; Matthew Cobb, pilot.

Elephant—Capt. James Bawden, of the Corniſh Miners, volunteer in the rifle corps; Mr. Henry Yaulden, maſter's mate.

Polyphemus—Mr. James Bell, midſhipman.

Iſis—Mr. Daniel Lamond, maſter; Mr. Henry Long, lieutenant of the marines; Mr. George M'Kinlay, Mr. Thomas Ram, midſhipmen; Mr. Grant, lieutenant of the rifle corps.

Ganges—Mr. Robert Stewart, maſter.

Dart—Mr. Edwin Sandys, lieutenant.

Glatton—Mr. Alexander Nicholſon, pilot.

Monarch—Capt. Robert Moſſe.

Amazon—Capt. Edward Riou; hon. George Tucker, midſhipman.

Officers wounded.

Edgar—Joſhua Johnſon, ſecond lieutenant; Wm. Goldfinch, fifth lieutenant: Mr. Gahogan, Mr. Whimper, Mr. Ridge, Mr. Proctor, Mr. Dumett, midſhipmen, ſlightly.

Defiance—Mr. Paterſon, boatſwain; Mr. Gallaway, midſhipman; Mr. Niblet, captain's clerk; Mr. Stephenſon, pilot.

Elephant—Mr. Robert Gill, midſhipman of the St. George; Mr. Hugh Mitchel, midſhipman.

Alcmene—Mr. Henry Baker, acting third lieutenant; Mr. Charles, lieutenant of the marines; Mr. Charles Church, boatſwain; Mr. G. A. Spearing, maſter's mate; Mr. Pratt, pilot.

Polyphemus—Mr. Edward Burr, boatſwain.

Deſirée—M. King, lieutenant, ſlightly.

Iſis—Mr. Richard Cormack, lieutenant; Mr. Ruben Pain, Mr. Simon Frazer, Mr. Charles Jones, midſhipmen.

Ganges—Mr. Iſaac Davis, pilot, badly.

Glatton—Mr. Tindall, lieutenant; Mr. Robert Thompſon, maſter's mate; Mr. John Williams, midſhipman.

Monarch—Mr. William Minchin, lieutenant; Mr. James Marrie, lieutenant of marines; Mr. James Dennis, lieutenant of the 49th regiment; Mr. Henry Swymmer, Mr. W. J. Bowes, Mr. Thomas Harlowe, Mr. George Morgan, Mr. Philip Le Veſconte, midſhipmen; Mr. William Joy, boatſwain.

Bellona—Sir T. B. Thompſon, bart. captain, loſt his leg; Mr. Thomas Southey, lieutenant; Mr. Thomas Wilks, lieutenant, ſlightly; captain Alexander Sharpe, of the 49th regiment, badly; Mr. James Emmerton, maſter's-mate; Mr. —— Anderſon, Mr. Edward Daubenny, Mr. William Sitford, Mr. Fig, midſhipmen.

Amazon—Mr. James Harry, Mr. Philip Horne, maſter's mates.

Killed.

Officers	- - 20	
Seamen, marines, and ſoldiers	234	
		—— 254

Wounded.

Officers	- - 48	
Seamen, marines, and ſoldiers	641	
		—— 689
Total killed and wounded		943

*** In printing the returns of the killed and wounded in the Gazette, there is a miſtake:—The total of the killed and wounded in the Elephant is there ſet down at 89, it ſhould be 19. This reduces the general total to 875, which agrees with earl St. Vincent's letter to the lord mayor.

THE following are correct copies of the correſpondence which paſſed between Lord Nelſon and the Prince Royal of Denmark, on the 2d inſt, immediately on the former finding the Daniſh ſhips and batteries entirely within his power.

No. I.

'Lord Nelſon has directions to ſpare Denmark, when no longer reſiſting; but if the firing is continued on the part of Denmark, lord Nelſon muſt be obliged to ſet on fire all the floating batteries he has taken, without having the power of ſaving the brave Danes who have defended them.

'Dated on board his majeſty's ſhip Elephant, Copenhagen Roads, 2d April, 1801.

(Signed) 'NELSON and BRONTE.

'Vice Admiral, under the command of Admiral Sir Hyde Parker.

'To the Brothers of Engliſhmen, the Danes.'

No. II.

His royal highneſs the prince royal of

Denmark has ſent me, general adjutant Lindholm, on board to his Britannic majeſty's vice admiral, the right hon. lord Nelſon, to aſk the particular object of ſending the flag of truce.'

No. III.

Lord Nelſon's Anſwer.

'Lord Nelſon's object in ſending the flag of truce was *humanity!* he, therefore, conſents, that hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe, and that the wounded Danes may be taken on ſhore; and lord Nelſon will take his priſoners out of the veſſels, and burn or carry off his prizes, as he ſhall think fit.

'Lord Nelſon, with humble duty to his royal highneſs the prince of Denmark, will conſider this the greateſt victory he ever gained, if it may be the cauſe of a happy reconciliation and union between his own moſt gracious ſovereign and his majeſty the king of Denmark.

(Signed) NELSON and BRONTE.

'On board his majeſty's ſhip Elephant, Copenhagen Roads, 2d April, 1801.'

Admiralty-office, April 21.

Extract of a Letter from Admiral Sir Hyde Parker, Commander in Chief of his Majeſty's Ships and Veſſels employed on a particular Service, to Evan Nepean, Eſq. Secretary to the Admiralty, dated on Board his Majeſty's Ship London, in Copenhagen Road, April 9.

Sir,

The hon. lieutenant-colonel Stewart having volunteered his ſervices by being the bearer of theſe diſpatches, I have accepted thereof, on a belief that it will be more expeditious than by ſea.

I have the pleaſure to tranſmit an armiſtice concluded between the court of Denmark and myſelf.

I mean, as ſoon as the diſabled ſhips are refitted, and the worſt of the wounded moved into the Holſtein Daniſh ſhip of the line, which I have commiſſioned as an hoſpital ſhip, to proceed over the grounds into the Baltic, to put into execution the remaining part of my inſtructions.

The Iſis and Monarch being found in ſo bad a ſtate from the late action, as to render it neceſſary to ſend them to England to have their damages repaired, I ſhall ſend them home for that purpoſe, with the Holſtein hoſpital ſhip, which has the wounded and ſick on board.

ARMISTICE.

The Daniſh government on the one part, and admiral ſir Hyde Parker, knt. commander in chief of his Britannic majeſty's naval force in the road of Copenhagen, on the other, equally induced by ſentiments of humanity, to put a ſtop to the effuſion of blood, and preſerve the city of Copenhagen from the conſequences of a continuation of hoſtilities, have mutually agreed to a ceſſation of arms.

With this view, his majeſty the king of Denmark has appointed major-general Erneſtus Frederic Watterſdorff, chamberlain to his Daniſh majeſty, and colonel of a regiment, and adjutant-general Hans Lindholm, as commiſſioners to conclude this armiſtice; and admiral ſir Hyde Parker has, on his part, appointed lord Horatio Nelſon, knight of the order of the Bath, duke of Bronte in Sicily, Grand-croſs of the orders of Ferdinand and Merit, and knight of the Auſtrian order of the Creſcent, vice-admiral of the fleet of his Britannic majeſty; and alſo lieutenant-colonel William Stewart, commander of a detachment of land troops on board the fleet; which commiſſioners have this day met together, and after exchanging their full powers, agreed to the following conditions.

Art. I. From the moment of the ſigning of the armiſtice all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe between the fleet under the command of admiral ſir Hyde Parker, and the city of Copenhagen, and all armed ſhips and veſſels belonging to his Daniſh majeſty, which ſhall be found in the road or harbour of that city; as alſo between the different iſlands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included.

II. The armed ſhips and veſſels of his Daniſh majeſty ſhall remain in their preſent condition, as well with reſpect to the manner in which they are manned, as to their military poſition, and the treaty, known by the name of the treaty of the armed neutrality, ſhall, ſo far as concerns the active co-operation of Denmark, remain ſuſpended ſo long as this armiſtice ſhall continue in force. On the other hand, the armed ſhips and veſſels under the command of admiral ſir Hyde Parker ſhall in no manner whatever diſturb the city of Copenhagen, or the armed ſhips and veſſels of his Daniſh majeſty, or the coaſts of the different iſlands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included; and, to prevent every thing which may create diſturbance or ſuſpicion, admiral ſir Hyde Parker ſhall, on no account, permit any ſhip or veſſel, under his command, to approach within cannon-ſhot of the armed ſhips or fortifications of his Daniſh majeſty, in the road of Copenhagen. This

limitation ſhall, however, not extend to the ſhips which muſt neceſſarily paſs and repaſs through the king's deep.

III. This armiſtice ſhall ſecure the city of Copenhagen, as alſo the coaſts of Denmark, Jutland, and the iſlands, againſt the attack of any other fleet of men of war, which now or hereafter, during the continuance of this armiſtice, may be ſent by his Britannic majeſty into theſe ſeas.

IV. The fleet of admiral ſir Hyde Parker ſhall be at liberty to procure from the city of Copenhagen, and along the coaſts of the different iſlands and provinces of Denmark, Jutland included, whatever may be wanted for the health and cure of the crews.

V. Admiral ſir Hyde Parker ſhall engage to ſend on ſhore all the ſubjects of his Daniſh majeſty, which are at preſent on board the Engliſh fleet under his command; and the Daniſh government engages to account both for them and for the wounded, which have been ſuffered to come on ſhore after the battle of the 2d, in the unfortunate caſe of the renewal of hoſtilities with Great Britain.

VI. The coaſting trade of Denmark, with the different parts of the coaſt included within the extent of this armiſtice, ſhall in no manner be diſturbed by any Britiſh armed ſhip or veſſel: and admiral ſir Hyde Parker ſhall iſſue the neceſſary inſtructions for that purpoſe.

VII. This armiſtice ſhall continue in force, during the ſpace of fourteen weeks, from the day of its being ſigned by the contracting parties. After the expiration of that time, each of the ſaid parties ſhall be at liberty to declare it terminated, and recommence hoſtilities, giving a previous notice of fourteen days.

The conditions of this armiſtice ſhall, on every occaſion, be explained in the moſt liberal manner, in order to remove every ground of future diſpute, and facilitate the means of a reſtoration of friendſhip, and a good underſtanding between the two kingdoms.

In witneſs of this, we, the undeſigned commiſſioners, according to our full powers, have ſigned and ſealed with our arms the preſent armiſtice.

Given on board his Britannic majeſty's ſhip the London, in the road of Copenhagen, April 9.

(L. S.) E. F. WATTERSDORFF,
(L. S.) NELSON, Duke of Bronte,
(L. S.) H. LINDHOLM,
(L. S.) W. STEWART.

Ratified by me, HYDE PARKER, Admiral and commander in chief of the fleet of his Britannic majeſty.

THEATRE.

A NEW Comic Opera, called THE BLIND GIRL, OR, A RECEIPT FOR BEAUTY, was performed, for the firſt time, at Covent-garden theatre, April 22.

DRAMATIS PERSONÆ.

Don Gallardo, (viceroy of Peru) Mr. Munden; don Valentia (his ſon-in-law) Mr. Betterton; Roderic (friend to Valentia) Mr. Claremont; Bonito (an Apothecary) Mr. Townſend; Frederick (an Engliſh ſurgeon) Mr. Incledon; Splaſh (his ſervant) Mr. Fawcett; Sligo, Mr. Johnſtone; Young Ynca (a deſcendant from the ancient ſovereigns) Mr. Hill.—Signora Doloroſa de Gallardo, Mrs. Mattocks; Clara Bonito (the blind girl) Mrs. H. Johnſton; Viletta, Miſs Sims; Carello, Miſs Waters.

The ſcenes lies at Lima, and the plot conſiſts of three diſtinct ſtories: Firſt, The diſtreſſes of Bonito, and the giving of ſight to his daughter by Frederick, in conſequence of which ſhe marries him.—Second, The diſlike of the governor to ſtate parade, and his love of eaſe and private ſociety; in which he is oppoſed by his lady, Doroloſa, who, fearful of loſing his affection, ſends for Splaſh, the reputed vender of a renowned coſmetic, to make old ladies look young. And third, the ſeduction of the Ynca's ſiſter by Roderic, who is in revenge murdered by the Ynca's. Splaſh, who is an ignorant ſervant, that can neither write nor read, but poſſeſſed of much aſſurance, by improving the looks of the governor's lady, is promoted to be a judge, and preſides in court. Here the Ynca is tried for the murder of his ſiſter's ſeducer, on the proſecution of don Valentia, the friend of the deceaſed. A cauſe is alſo tried, in which don Valentia ſues Bonito for a large ſum, becauſe the latter will not give to him Clara, his daughter, in marriage. The judge, of courſe, makes a ludicrous figure, and acquits both the defendants. Clara is given to Frederic, and the piece ends.

To the performers the author is much indebted, and Fawcett, Munden, Johnſtone, Incledon, Townſend, and Mrs.

H. Johnſton, are entitled to particular encomium.

The manager's liberality has conferred upon the repreſentation every poſſible embelliſhment, in point of ſcenery, decoration, and dreſs; and the ſtricteſt attention has been paid to Spaniſh and Peruvian coſtume.

Several judicious curtailments and alterations have been made ſince the firſt performance, and the piece promiſes to become as popular as any of our modern operas.

A NEW Tragedy, called JULIAN AND AGNES, was performed, for the firſt time, at Drury-lane theatre, April 25.

DRAMATIS PERSONÆ.

Alfonſo, Mr. Kemble; Provoſt, Mr. Wroughton; Prior, Mr. Packer; Confeſſor, Mr. Barrymore; Infirmier, Mr. Holland; Knight, Mr. Powell; Guards, Mr. Cooke and Mr. Trueman.—Agnes, counteſs of Tortona, Mrs. Siddons; Ellen, Miſs Biggs; Attendants, Mrs. Sontley and Miſs B. Menage.

Scene, a Convent on Mount St. Bernard.

The general outline of the fable runs thus: Julian, count of Tortona, is eſpouſed to Agnes, daughter of the duke of Novarra, with whom, for five years, he lives in uninterrupted happineſs. At that period, being called to the wars; in heading the Sitzers againſt the Gallic invaders, his friend is wounded by his ſide, who, apprehenſive of approaching death, confides to Julian the care of an orphan ſiſter, whom he deſcribes to be ſequeſtered amid the peaceful vales of Milan. The war being ended, Julian ſeeks out the ſiſter of his friend, Helen, becomes enamoured of her, and, ſpite of his former contract, marrie her; at the moment of ſolemnization, Julian's friend, recovered of his wounds, arrives, and ſtung with the perfidy of his friend, gives him a blow, at which the enraged Julian draws a dagger, and ſtabs him to the heart; yet, ere he dies, he obliges his ſiſter to make a ſolemn oath ſhe will never take the murderer of her brother to her arms. Julian, covered with guilt and diſgrace, betakes him to a convent, and Helen, by ſome ſtrange fatality or other, is found in the ſame place, together with Agnes, the firſt wife of Julian. Here the play begins, and the whole five acts are drawn out by the ſufferings of Helen, the pious and *forgiving* ſpirit of Agnes, and the diſturbed conſcience and remorſe of Julian; all aided and aſſiſted by the fervent prayers of a number of monks who conſtantly ſurround them, till the death of Helen and Julian put an end to the ſcene, while the *ſympathiſing* Agnes is left to deplore the mutability of all earthly happineſs!

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

APRIL 3.

ON Tueſday, in conſequence of the notice given, a number of gentlemen went up to Downing-ſtreet, and met Mr. Addington, to bid for the lottery.—There were three parties. On opening their ſealed offers, the chancellor of the exchequer expreſſed himſelf diſſatisfied, and they amended their offers, which then ſtood as follows:

For a Lottery of 50,000 Tickets.

Mr. Cope offered per ticket	£13 14 6
Meſſrs. Wilkinſon, Henſley, Pulley, Bruckſhaw, &c. -	13 15 9
Meſſrs. Banniſter, Cooper, Biſh, Beardmore, Richardſon, and Bramſcombe - -	14 0 6

Upon which the laſt party were declared the contractor.

The lottery of the former year was taken at 16l 10s 6d, and at the time of the bidding for the new lottery the tickets were ſelling at a premium of 19s, making the price 17l 9s 6d.

APRIL 4.

Yeſterday, at a general court of proprietors of Eaſt India ſtock, the chairman ſtated, that the court of directors had taken into conſideration the matter referred to them at the laſt general court, reſpecting the renumeration to be given by the company to commodore ſir Sidney Smith, for his gallant conduct before Acre, in conducting the ſiege of that place for 62 days, and repulſing general Bonaparte; and that they had reſolved to recommend to the general court, that ſir Sidney Smith be preſented with the ſum of 3000l, as a reward for his diſtinguiſhed ſervices on that occaſion. This being ſubmitted to the general court, paſſed unanimouſly.

APRIL 8.

Manifeſto relative to the Occupation of the Free and Imperial City of Hamburgh by a body of Daniſh troops.

'By the expreſs command of his majeſty the king of Denmark and Norway, it is hereby declared:

'The attacks made by the Engliſh government, in oppoſition to all the principles of the laws of nations, againſt the navigation and trade of thoſe powers that have confederated together for the purpoſe of ſecuring and maintaining the rights of neutral flags; and the arbitrary and powerful meaſures adopted by that government, notwithſtanding the moſt preſſing and continued remonſtrances; have impoſed on theſe powers the diſagreeable neceſſity of taking every previous ſtep that may ſerve to bring the ſaid government to a more juſt way of thinking.

'As the excluſion of the Engliſh navigation and trade from the Elbe muſt be an effectual means of promoting this object; and as the poſſeſſion, for a time, of the imperial city of Hamburgh has been conſidered as unavoidably neceſſary for that purpoſe, his Daniſh majeſty, unwilling as he is to adopt a meaſure of this kind, has been obliged to give way to a crowd of imperious circumſtances; and conſequently has charged me to carry the meaſure into execution with the troops under my command.

'Conformably to the poſitive orders enjoined me, I will moſt vigilantly take care, that the ſtricteſt diſcipline ſhall be obſerved by the troops that enter the city, while they remain there; and that the tranquillity, the property, and municipal rights of the inhabitants ſhall not only be undiſturbed and unmoleſted, but that the ſame ſhall be moſt carefully preſerved and guarded for them. I expect, therefore, that all perſons ſhall conduct themſelves peaceably and friendly toward the royal troops commanded by me; and that nobody ſhall find fault with that neceſſary ſeverity which muſt be put in force in caſe of a contrary behaviour.

'CHARLES, Prince of HESSE.'

APRIL 9.

Yeſterday a general court was held at the Eaſt India houſe, for the purpoſe of determining by ballot the election of ſix directors, in the room of the following gentlemen, who go out by rotation, viz. ſir S. Luſhington, William Devaynes, Charles Grant, George Smith, William Thornton, and Sweny Toone, eſqrs.

At ſix o'clock the glaſſes were finally cloſed, and on the ſcrutineers delivering in their report, the numbers were:—for

William Benſley, eſq. -	471
Sir J. Smith Burges, bart. -	468
The hon. W. Elphinſtone, -	468
John Hunter, eſq. - -	470
John Travers, eſq. - -	466
Stephen Williams, eſq. -	468

Yeſterday a court of directors was held at the Eaſt India houſe, when the thanks of the court were voted to Hugh Inglis, and David Scott, eſqrs. for the great attention they have paid to the intereſt of the company during the laſt year.

Tueſday laſt came on the election of a governor and deputy governor of the Bank of England for the year enſuing, when Job Matthew, eſq. was choſen governor, and Joſeph Nutt, eſq. deputy governor.

And yeſterday came on the election of twenty four directors, when the following gentlemen were choſen:

Thomas Amyand, Thomas Boddington, Samuel Boſanquet, Alex. Champion, Edward Darell, George Dorrien, Peter Free, Jeremiah Harman, Thomas Langley, Thomas Lewis, Beeſton Long, Ebenezer Maitland, William Manning, William Melliſh, eſqrs. ſir Richard Neave, bart. Jeremiah Olive, John Pearſe, John Puget, Thomas Raikes, James Reed, Edward Simeon, Peter Iſaac Thelluſſon, S. Thornton, and John Whitmore, eſqrs.

APRIL 14.

Extract of a Letter from Lifford, Ireland, dated Tueſday, April 7.

The buſineſs is over. Several applications to put off the trial of Nappy Tandy were refuſed by the court, and ſeveral arguments, in point of law, were overruled; on which Mr. Tandy's counſel threw up their briefs.

Mr. Tandy then addreſſed the court in a ſhort but manly ſpeech, avowing every thing ſet forth in the indictment; and ſaid, his heart diſdained a falſhood.

Judge Chamberlaine begged he would weigh the conſequence of ſuch a declaration; that ſentence of death muſt inſtantly follow.

Mr. Tandy anſwered, he was not afraid to meet death in any ſhape:—he knew well the awful ſentence of the law—he was ready to receive it with the reſignation of a Chriſtian, and with the firmneſs and fortitude of a man.

The judge (Chamberlaine) then paſſed ſentence, which is to take place the 4th of next month.

APRIL 16.

Hamburgh, April 6. Early this morning a Ruſſian officer, lieutenant Beyder, arrived here as a courier on his way to London, with an account of the death of his imperial Ruſſian majeſty, Paul the Firſt, who died of an apoplexy, in the night of the 23d and 24th of March. The grand duke Alexander was immediately proclaimed emperor, by the title of Alexander the Firſt.

Copy of the Proclamation of the new Emperor of Ruſſia.

We, by the grace of God, Alexander the Firſt, emperor and autocrator of all Ruſſias, &c. &c. declare to all our faithful ſubjects.

It has pleaſed the decrees of the Almighty to ſhorten the life of our beloved parent ſovereign emperor Paul Petrovitz, who died ſuddenly by an apoplectic ſtroke, at night between the 11th and 12th of this month. We, on receiving the hereditary imperial throne of all the Ruſſias, do receive alſo at the ſame time the obligation to govern the people committed unto us by the Almighty, according to the laws and the heart of her who reſts in God, our moſt auguſt grand mother, ſovereign empreſs Catherine the Great, whoſe memory will be dear for ever to us, and the whole country. Following the ſteps of her wiſe intentions, we hope to arrive at the object of carrying Ruſſia to the ſummit of glory, and to procure an uninterrupted happineſs to all our faithful ſubjects, whom we do hereby invite to ſeal their fidelity to us by the oath, before the face of all ſeeing God, whoſe aſſiſtance we implore to grant us power to ſupport the weight now reſting upon us.

Given at Peterſburg, March 12, O. S.

ALEXANDER.

APRIL 17.

On Wedneſday the ſeſſions commenced at the Old Bailey, before lord Kenyon, lord chief baron, Mr. juſtice Heath, Mr. Recorder, &c. when twenty-ſix priſoners were tried, three of whom were capitally convicted.

APRIL 25.

On Thurſday, the ſeſſion ended at the Old Bailey, when Ann Moore, John Lennard, John Weſcott, Thomas Burrill, Thomas Bolt, John Tiffard, Sarah Letter, Francis Barnes, Ann Nole, Suſannah Gordon, Thomas Hopkins, Robert Griffiths, John Drake, Richard Priſton, William Withers, jun. William Withers, ſen. William Thornburn, James Foſſet, alias Hickman, John Hannikin, James Pearce, and Thomas Wynn, ſeverally received judgment of death.

Thirty-ſeven were ordered to be tranſported for the term of ſeven years. Andrew Whitehead was ordered to be tranſported for fourteen years.

Twelve were ordered to be impriſoned in Newgate; twenty were ordered to be impriſoned in the houſe of correction at Clerkenwell; ſix were ordered to be publicly whipped; ten were ordered to be privately whipped, and one fined one ſhilling and diſcharged.

IN a preceding number of the Univerſal Magazine, we gave a 'Sketch of the Life of the late Bryan Edwards, eſq. M. P. for Grampound, written by himſelf a ſhort time before his death. Publiſhed from his Manuſcript intruſted to ſir William Young, bart.'

This Life was in fact copied from the New Edition of that celebrated Author's 'Hiſtory civil and commercial of the Britiſh Colonies in the Weſt Indies;' and having been unwarrantably done without the knowledge or permiſſion of Mr. John Stockdale, of Piccadilly, the proprietor and publiſher; we feel ourſelves called upon to make this public Apology, excluſive of private compenſation, for having unjuſtly invaded and pirated his Copy-right; Mr. Stockdale having conſented to ſtop the law proceedings, which he had already inſtituted againſt us.

We further feel it a duty incumbent upon us to ſtate, that the life written by Mr. Edwards, was left ſpecifically to Mr. Stockdale for publication, and not intruſted to ſir William Young, until put into the able hands of that honourable baronet, by the publiſher, in conſequence of his (ſir William Young) having undertaken, with a promptitude which did him the greateſt honour, to pay a laſt tribute of reſpect to the manes of his worthy and univerſally reſpected friend Mr. Edwards, by editing and introducing his laſt ſentiments to the tribunal of that public, which had already beſtowed encomiums upon his writings, not ſurpaſſed by any in the Annals of Literature.

BIRTHS.

COUNTESS of Derby, a daughter.

Lady of James Hewitt Maſſy Dawſon, eſq. Glouceſter ſtreet, Portman-ſquare, a daughter.

Lady of Lambert Fowler, eſq. of Soho, eſq. a daughter.

Lady of G. H Roſe, eſq. M. P. a ſon.

Lady of John Allnutt, eſq. of Mark-lane, a daughter.

MARRIAGES.

HENRY Fletcher, eſq. only ſon of ſir Henry Fletcher, bart. M. P. of Aſhley-park, Surry, to miſs Frances Sophia Vaughan.

Mr. Daniel Mocatta, of Lemon ſtreet, to miſs Ann Goldſmid, young ſt daughter of George Goldſmid, eſq. of Clapham-common.

Thomas Clutterbuck, eſq. of Stanmore, Middleſex, to miſs Gurry, of Grace-church-ſtreet.

Th mas Reeves, eſq. of New-court, Broad-ſtreet, to Mrs. Braditreet, of Hemhillt, Surry.

Henry Hulle, eſq. of Addle-ſtreet, to mi s Horton, of Newgate-ſtreet.

Rev. Dr. Wynne, nephew to lord Newbo ough, to Mrs. Bellingham, of Caſtle Bellingham, in Lough, Ireland.

Geor e Fuller, eſq. of Givons Grove, Surry, o Mrs. Drake, of Upper Groſvenor-ſtreet.

Robert Canning, eſq. of Lincoln's-inn, to miſs Berkeley, eldeſt daughter of John Berkeley, eſq.

Mr. York, to the hon. miſs Laſcelles.

DEATHS.

HON. ſir Charles Stuart, K. B. and M. P.

Rear admiral Cornthwaite Ommaney.

John Knowles, eſq. rear-admiral of the white, aged 80.

Mrs. Kennedy, wife of John Kennedy, eſq. of Charterhouſe-ſquare.

Thomas Davies, eſq. of the City-road.

Lieutenant colonel James Grant, of Jamaica.

Mrs. Barclay, wife of Robert Barclay, eſq. of Clapham-common.

Mr. Henry Jewett, of Camberwell-green, aged 82.

Mr. Liv rmore, of Tottenham-court-road, aged 81.

Hon. Mrs. Howard, wife of the hon. and Rev. Mr. Howard, of Handſworth, Sheffield.

Chriſtopher Heineken, eſq. of Peckham, aged 82.

William Thornton Axtell, eſq. of Clapham.

Hon. John David Colyear, ſon of the earl of Portmore.

Joſeph Gape, eſq. of the Middle Temple, aged 82.

John Howorth, eſq. rear admiral, aged 73.

Eliſabeth Prichard, of Trinity-hoſpital Hereford, aged 99.

Sir Howe Hicks, bart.

Lady Pennyman, ſiſter to ſir Henry Grey, bart.

Mrs. Stone, of Egham Hythe, Surry, aged 84.

PROMOTIONS.

WILLIAM lord Auckland, and Charles Spencer, eſq. (commonly called lord Charles Spencer—poſtmaſter-general

Right hon. John lord Eldon—lord high chancellor.

Righ hon. Alexander lord Loughborough—earl of Roſslyn, in the county of Mid Lothian.

Right hon. John earl of St. Vincent—viſcount St. Vincent, of Meaford, in the county of Stafford.

Right hon. George Legge, commonly called viſcount Lewiſham, duke of Portland, right hon. Robert Banks Jenkinſon, commonly called lord Hawkeſbury, Robert baron Hobart, chancellor of the Exchequer, duke of Montroſe, earl Bathurſt, Sylveſter baron Glenbervie, right hon. William Dundas, and Thomas Wallace, eſqrs. Charles George baron Arden, right hon. Thomas Pelham, and Edward Golding, eſq —to be his majeſty's commiſſioners for the management of the affairs of India.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

MARCH 24.

J. SCOTT, and Walter Scott, Gainsford ſtreet, Southwark, tallow-chandlers.

J. Paul, Winchester, hardwareman.

R. Maſon, Birmingham, grocer.

G. Fletcher, Knightſbridge, hackney-man.

T. Amos, Holborn-hill, mercer.

T. Weſt, Blackburn, cotton-ſpinner.

G. Knight, Liverpool, glaſs-manufacturer.

J. Davies, Liverpool, linen-draper.

MARCH 28.

H. Dry, Uxbridge, liquor-merchant.

J. R. Bolton, Princes-ſtreet, Hanover-ſquare, money ſcrivener.

J. Eaſt, Princes-ſtreet, Soho, upholſterer.

H. Cowley, Dock, Devonſhire, vintner.

M. Levine, Weſtminſter-road, Surry, chinaman.

J. Hart, Cambridge, innkeeper.

J. Blomely, Manchester, innkeeper.
W. Fish, Norwich, haberdasher.
T. Turner, Trowbridge, grocer.
J. Nicholson, J. Nicholson, and J. Walker, Halifax, Yorkshire, printers.
M. Mammatt, Birmingham, grocer.

MARCH 31.

W. Pretyman, Great Tower-street, cooper.
W. Rosthorn, Broadway, Westminster, victualler.
N. Tanner, Essex-street, Strand, dealer.
C. Moody, Longtown, Cumberland, dealer.
E. Tipping, Liverpool, soap-boiler.
E. Mottershed, Manchester, victualler.
G. Ansell, Whitecross-alley, Shoreditch, watch-spring-maker.
W. Spencer, Saffron-hill, victualler.

APRIL 4.

J. Hawkins, Leicester, currier.
P. Donnelly, Tavistock-street, Covent-garden, taylor.
A. Wood, Scotland-yard, Whitehall, victualler.
J. Stainsby, Cornhill, woollen-draper.
H. Penn the younger, Gosbrook, Staffordshire, worsted-manufacturer.
T. Charters, Haydon-square, merchant.
G. Gwinnett, Bristol, cornfactor.
J. Walton, Birmingham, rope-maker.
E. Mottershead, Manchester, victualler.
J. Bates, Birmingham, woollen-draper.
G. H. Bobart, New Woodstock, Oxfordshire, mercer.
J. Bewick the younger, Monkwearmouth Shore, Durham, butcher.
J. Ricketts, Bristol, toy-maker.

APRIL 7.

J. Allcroft, Mansfield Woodhouse, in Nottinghamshire, maltster.
T. Lott, Bath, baker.
J. Glover, Kensington, stone-mason.
W. Brown, Wymendham, in Norfolk, tanner.
A. Smith, Wardour-street, Soho, taylor.

APRIL 11.

T. Jones, and J. Harrison, Ludlow, Salop, glove-manufacturers.
S. Shore, Manchester, victualler.
J. Hunter, Rye, Sussex, common-carrier.
J. Green, Manchester, patten-maker.
J. Rowan, Burton-upon-Trent, licensed hawker.
S. Scott, and J. Scott, Mount-street, Grosvenor-square, haberdashers.
J. Houlding, Preston, Lancashire, dealer in liquors.
G. Bakewell, Birmingham, baker.
A. Mead, West Wycombe, Bucks, chair-maker.
J. Draper, Sherrard-street, cabinet-maker.
P. Ker, Old Jewry, merchant.
J. Alder, St. John-street, Clerkenwell, cabinet-maker.

APRIL 14.

T. Verstille, Leadenhall-street, butcher.
J. Dawson, Liverpool, master mariner.
H. Stanton, Rainhill, Lancashire, innkeeper.
T. Price, Walcot place, Lambeth, money-scrivener.

APRIL 21.

J. Williams, Quebec-street, Marybone, baker.
T. Farrow, York, dealer in spirituous liquors.
T. Gidden, Abingdon, Berks, currier.
J. Hodgson, New-road, St. George's in the east, merchant.
R. S. Bennett, Houndsditch, hatter.
A. Webb, Great Tower-street, merchant.

APRIL 25.

J Hudson, Derby, dealer in wine.
J. Partington, Fen-court, Fenchurch-street, merchant.
S. Metcalf and J. Metcalf, Golden-leg-court, Cheapside, hosiers.
T. Winterbourn and C. Gardner, Carey-street, taylors.
J. Wood, Manchester, machine-maker.
T. Bellamy and J. Bellamy, Birmingham, japanners.
J. Ibbett, Crown-street, Finsbury-square, shoemaker.
J. Andrew, Manchester, and T. Mason, St. Swithin's-lane, cotton merchants.
T. Chatterton, and E. Wells, Brenchley, Kent, hat manufacturers.
F. J. Albers, Green Lettice-lane, Cannon-street, merchant.
G. Dacre, Husselbury, otherwise Owselbury, Southampton, dealer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

FELL's Tour through the Batavian Republic, 8vo, 9s.
Classical English Poetry, 12mo, 5s.
Farrer's Sermons on the Parables, 8vo, 8s.
Britton's Beauties of Wiltshire, 2 vol. 8vo, 1l 7s.
Volney's Lectures on History, 12mo, 4s.
Mysterious Penitent, 2 vol. 7s.
Castle of Eridan, small 8vo, 5s.
Taylor's Metaphysics of Aristotle, 4to, 2l 2s, boards.
Hall's Creation, 12mo, 2s 6d.

Clark's (Dr.) Survey of the Strength and Opulence of Great Britain, 8vo, 6s.

Groſe's Twelve Sermons, 8vo, 8s 6d.

Yonge's Extracts, Moral and Sacred, 12mo, 3s 6d.

Ordinaire's Hiſtory of Volcanos, 8vo, 8s.

Briſſon's Principles of Chymiſtry, 8vo, 12s.

Pirate of Naples, 3 vol. 15s.

Kelly's Elements of Book-keeping, 8vo, 5s.

More's (Hannah) Works, 8 vol. ſmall 8vo, 2l 8s.

Lebedeff's Grammar of the mixed Indian Dialects, 4to, 1l 1s, boards.

Wilkinſon's Method of curing Gonorrhœa, 8vo, 6s.

Walker's (George) Poems, 12mo, 6s.

Thomſon's Britiſh Parnaſſus, a Poem, 4s.

Boſcawen's (William) Poems, 3s 6d, boards.

Reece's Hoſpital Pharmacopœa, 8vo, 3s 6d, boards.

Joke upon Joke, a Collection of Bonmots, &c. 12mo, 5s.

Aſiatic Annual Regiſter for 1800, 12s 6d, boards.

Enchantreſs, a Tale, 12mo, 5s.

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Herauld's Digeſt of the Stamp Laws, 8vo, 10s 6d.

Roe's Elements of Engliſh Metre, ſmall 4to, 5s, boards.

Fitzgerald's Miſcellaneous Poems, 8vo, 10s 6d.

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Sheffield's (Lord) Remarks on the Deficiency of Grain, 3s 6d.

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Wiſe Men of Goſmanthorpe, a Novel, 4s.

Man of Fortitude, 3 vol. 12s.

Little Bombardiers, or Pocket Gunner, 3s 6d.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN.

April 18, 1800.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Buſhels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middleſex	159	11	105	0	71	9	45	6
Surry	160	0	——		73	10	43	4
Hertford	137	4	——		68	7	45	0
Bedford	137	5	102	0	87	2	38	3
Huntingdon	145	6	——		84	0	36	8
Northampton	134	10	——		78	2	36	8
Rutland	131	6	—		85	0	40	0
Leiceſter	142	9	105	3	90	3	41	6
Nottingham	144	9	105	0	82	8	48	4
Derby	136	6	——		84	6	45	6
Stafford	160	8	——		92	9	54	7
Salop	170	6	121	2	108	8	41	10
Hereford	174	10	108	8	106	7	49	2
Worceſter	175	8	——		100	9	48	6
Warwick	167	11	——		107	9	51	0
Wilts	161	8	——		88	0	44	0
Berks	152	4	——		73	0	41	6
Oxford	154	5	——		77	6	47	4
Bucks	139	8	——		88	10	45	0
Brecon	151	3	——		89	7	43	1
Montgomery	161	2	150	4	115	2	48	0
Radnor	154	11	——		108	7	40	3

Maritime Counties.

Eſſex	141	4	69	6	67	8	39	10
Kent	146	3	——		65	0	40	0
Suſſex	157	4	——		65	0	41	8
Suffolk	162	6	——		62	7	40	5
Cambridge	142	0	——		59	9	30	11
Norfolk	138	8	——		57	0	41	6
Lincoln	127	1	——		83	4	38	8
York	135	5	102	4	73	8	42	11
Durham	143	10	108	7	88	1	49	10
Northumberland	135	3	105	0	78	4	45	6
Cumberland	141	2	117	0	94	3	61	7
Weſtmorland	159	7	138	9	110	2	57	3
Lancaſter	155	2	——		80	11	60	1
Cheſter	147	7	——		——		53	5
Flint	None		bro't		forSale		——	
Denbigh	161	7	——		125	0	57	0
Angleſea	None		bro't		forSale		——	
Carnarvon	146	0	——		102	8	50	0
Merioneth	152	5	——		116	0	61	1
Cardigan	137	8	——		100	0	——	
Pembroke	133	6	—		95	4	59	2
Carmarthen	155	2	——		120	0	39	4
Glamorgan	163	6	——		93	11	50	10
Glouceſter	184	7	——		95	2	41	6
Somerſet	163	9	——		89	5	39	4
Monmouth	172	2	——		117	7	30	0
Devon	116	1	——		59	7	37	11
Cornwall	114	9	——		67	4	37	2
Dorſet	172	10	——		89	7	——	
Hants	168	2	——		81	6	48	1

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	150	6	110	7	87	9	44	11

April 23—Peck Loaf, 6s 10d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, March 1801.

D.	H.	Baro.	Tout.	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 1,19
1	7	29,97	49	52,5	77	5	SW 3	
	2	30,04	54	54	76	5	SW 3	. little wet at night
2	7	30,28	51	53,5	78	5	SW 2	
	2	30,49	55,5	55,5	72	4	SW 1	. little wet at night
3	7	30,51	51,5	56	75	5	SW 1	. fine
	2	30,54	58	58,5	71	3	WSW 2	. cloudy night
4	7	30,50	51,5	57	68	5	WSW 1	. foggy. thick upward
	2	30,59	52,5	58	63	h	NNW 1	. fine
5	7	30,58	41,5	51	68	4	NNW 1	foggy. lefs cloudy
	2	30,52	50,5	54	65	2	WNW 1	hazy : little wet
6	7	30,37	46,5	52	72	5	WNW 0	foggy. little rain
	2	30,31	49,5	55	75	5	E 1	. little rain at times : fine
7	7	30,48	50,5	50	68	3	E 1	
	2	30,55	45,5	51	66	0	E 1	hazy. clear night
8	7	30,43	33,5	47,5	69	1	E 0	hazy
	2	30,33	42	48,5	70	1	S 1	hazy
9	7	30,10	35	47,5	71	f	SW 1	. fine : cloudy. fine
	2	30,06	50	50	70	2	W 2	hazy. cloudy and little wet : gentle rain
10	7	30,15	43,5	49	77	h	E 1	gentle rain: chiefly fair
	2	30,15	46	51	79	h	E 1	. chiefly thick upward and little rain at times
11	7	29,87	45	51	78	h	SE 1	. flight fog. little rain
	2	29,70	51	52	76	5	S 1	. gentle rain at times
12	7	29,48	47,5	52,5	76	h	SW 1	. chiefly fine but hazy
	2	29,61	52,5	54,5	69	3	W 1	hazy. fhower. fine night
13	7	29,72	42	52	70	2	WSW 1	. cloudy and little rain. fine
	2	29,76	51	53,5	65	3	WSW 2	: more wind and cloudy
14	7	29,54	49	52,5	75	5	SW 3	. fine. cloudy and rainy
N	2	29,34	51,5	55	75	5	SSW 2	. rain at times : fine
15	7	29,52	37	48	68	5	NNW 2	. chiefly fine
	2	29,75	43,5	51	65	3	NNW 1	. clear night
16	7	29,99	33	45,5	68	0	W 1	. more wind sw and little cloudy
	2	29,91	48	49	67	4	SW 3	. more cloudy and rain at times. fine night
17	7	29,86	44	49	73	0	SW 2	. windy and chiefly cloudy : little rain
	2	29,72	50,5	51,5	73	5	SW 4	chiefly cloudy and rainy : lefs wind and fine
18	7	29,64	37,5	48	72	3	WSW 1	: chiefly cloudy and little rain
	2	29,62	47	49	69	4	W 2	. little wet at times. clear night
19	7	29,86	37	48	68	0	W 1	: little wet
	2	29,96	46,5	49	65	2	WNW 2	hazy. cloudlefs night
20	7	29,85	42	49,5	71	4	SW 1	. more cloudy and windy. little hail and rain
	2	29,41	45	50,5	72	5	SSW 5	gentle rain. lefs wind and fine night : windy.
21	7	29,32	37,5	47	68	3	WSW 3	. more wind : hail ftorm. fine [lefs wind
	2	29,27	43	50,5	72	2	SW 3	. hail ftorm. lefs wind
22	7	29,27	38,5	47	67	2	WSW 3	. more wind : hail ftorm. fine
	2	29,45	48	49	63	1	WSW 4	. lefs wind and cloudy night : fine
23	7	29,29	38,5	46,5	68	1	WSW 1	. chiefly cloudy : little wet
	2	29,43	47	49,5	67	4	W 2	little rain. fine eve and wind NW
24	7	29,90	36,5	47	69	2	NW 1	hazy
	2	29,91	49	50	62	4	SSW 2	. much gentle rain. fine night
25	7	30,18	36	47,5	70	2	SW 1	hazy. foggy. little rain. fine
	2	30,29	47,5	49,5	69	3	SW 1	. cloudy night
26	7	30,33	44,5	48,5	72	4	WSW 1	
	2	30,32	52,5	52	70	4	SW 1	. thick upward at night
27	7	30,21	48,5	52,5	77	f	SW 1	
	2	30,16	55,5	55	72	5	SW 1	. fine eve
28	7	30,16	42,5	52	73	4	W 1	. lefs cloudy
	2	30,18	57,5	53	67	4	WSW 1	
29	7	30,19	43	53,5	70	3	SW 1	. cloudy
F	2	30,18	57	56	67	5	SW 2	. little wet at and in the night
30	7	30,37	51,5	55	76	h	SW 0	drizzly
	2	30,48	53	56	77	h	ESE 1	. cloudlefs eve
31	7	30,55	43,5	52	78	h	E 1	. fine
	2	30,51	54	54,5	66	1	E 1	

PRICES of STOCKS, from MARCH 28 to APRIL 27, 1801, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	Old 5 per C. Conſ.	New 5 per C. Anns.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exchequer Bills.	Engliſh Lot. Tic.	Iriſh Lot. Tic.
28	ſhut.	ſhut.	58 5/8 a 3/4	ſhut.	96 1/2	ſhut.	ſhut.	ſhut.	ſhut.	57 1/2	11 1/4			
30	160 3/4 op		58a57 1/2		96					57 1/2				
31	160 1/4		57 3/8 58 1/8		96 1/8				194 op.	57 1/2	11 1/4			
1	159		57 1/2 a 57		95 7/8					56 3/8	11 1/4			
2	160		57 3/8 3/4		95 1/2					56 1/4	11 1/4			
3														
4			57 1/2 3 1/2		95 3/8					57 1/8	11 1/4			
6			57 3/8 1/2		95 1/4									
7			57 1/2 1/8											
8	160 1/2		58 1/2 a 57 3/4		95 7/8				193	57 1/8	11 1/4	5s. dif.		
9	162 1/2		57 5/8 3/4		95 1/4				193		11 3/8	5s.		
10	162		57 1/2 3/8		95 3/8				193 1/2		shut.	5s.		
11	162		57 3/8 4 1/2		94 1/2				193	57 1/2		4s.		
13			57 3/8 1/2		94 1/2					57 1/4		5s.		
14			57 7/8 a 58 3/4		95 1/4				195	57 1/8		5s.		
15			59 1/8 a 1/2		96 1/4				195	shut.		6s.		
16			59 1/8 a 60 5/8		96 1/2							7s.		
17	170		60 1/2 a 61 5/8		97 1/4		18 5/8	5 1/4	200 1/2			10s.		
18			61 1/4 a 60 3/4		97 1/4				200			6s.		
20	168 1/2		61 3/8 a 61		97 3/8				200			6s.		
21	169		61 a 5/8		97				200			6s.		
22	167		60 1/8 a 59 1/2		95 1/2			5 1/8	198			6s.		
23	166		60 a 59 3/4		95 1/2			5 1/8	198			3s.		
24	166		60a59 3/4		95 3/8			5 1/8	198			2s.		
25		60 3/8	59 1/2 a 7/8											
27	163	59 7/8	59 3/8 a 1/8		95		17 7/8	5 1/8						

☞ In the 3 per Cent. conſols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a fifteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.